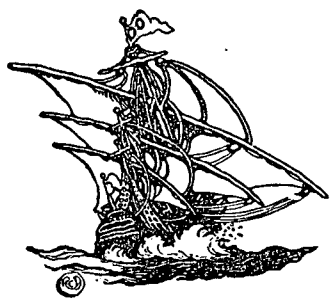
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

SEPTEMBER 15, 1925



COAL

The Most Amazing Strike
Robert W. Bruère

What Has Britain Bought?
Joseph K. Hart

What to Read on Coal

INDUSTRY
SOCIAL PRACTICE

HEALTH

EDUCATION
COMMUNITIES

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A Glimpse Ahead

Before Six, *by Mary Ross*

"THE world seems to have gone on for centuries," writes Mary Ross in the October Graphic, "bringing up children without often stopping to look at them." But "if you had walked up the elm-arched streets of New Haven one fine morning last spring you might have seen a gleeful young baby wheeled in her carriage to the door of one of the old mansions and carried inside as though she were going home for her dinner and nap. . . . This was one of the clients of the Yale Psycho-clinic on the the way for her periodic examination." The article describes in vivid terms the work of Dr. Arnold Gesell, who has been finding out just what babies may be expected to be and do at every stage of those fateful first six years of life.

Will Denmark Disarm? *by Joseph K. Hart*

DURING the summer Dr. Hart of The Survey's staff rambled inquisitively through Denmark, studying at close range the educational system of that amazing little nation. A realistic people, the Danes have come to the point of proposing to scrap most of their war-gear and make their acts, like their habits of thought, peaceful. Can they "get away with it" in the midst of a Europe still armed to the teeth? It is an absorbing question for those who hope for a warless world.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

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The Gist of It

"THE MOST AMAZING STRIKE" is on, and Mr. Bruère, industrial editor, tells briefly some of the reasons why it is amazing (p. 607). As this issue goes to press Mr. Bruère is off for the anthracite fields. The October Graphic will carry his first-hand report of what he finds.

THOUGH he is educational editor and not industrial, Dr. Hart is none the less qualified to answer the question What Has Britain Bought? (p. 610). For isn't the experience which the Empire is going through in its dealing with the coal miners one of the hardest lessons it has ever had to learn? Dr. Hart was sitting in the special gallery of the House of Commons when Premier Baldwin made his historic announcement of the bargain.

STUART A. QUEEN, who came through the thick of the fight when the governor of Kansas challenged the University (see Survey Graphic for February, 1925) gives on p. 613 his impression of the state in which Kansas finds itself with respect to social work and social progress. His review is based on the self-knowledge which Kansas has been helped to acquire by the Council of Statewide Agencies. Professor Queen, whose subject is sociology, is the author of Social Work in the Light of History.

LUNGERS go west. That is an old cry—a bitter counterpart of Horace Greeley's famous exhortation. Jessamine Whitney made for the National Tuberculosis Association a study of six western cities which have long been meccas for the tubercular, and reports on p. 617 some of the findings— a body of social fact which must be taken seriously into account by western caseworkers as well as eastern and middle western health workers.

WITH the cooperation of students and their parents, Mather A. Abbott, headmaster of Lawrenceville, has established a thorough system of health control which he describes on p. 620.

TO the complex question of institutional care for children, add the dictum of St. Ann's Infant Asylum in Cleveland: "Institutional care of infants under one year must raise itself to the plane of hospital care, if infant morbidity and mortality are to be reduced," and if this level is reached such children receive "better medical supervision, better nursing care, better dietetic watchfulness and better mental hygiene than infants in the homes of even the well-to-do." The regime described by Dr. J. R. Thompson (p. 621) is that adopted on the basis of study and recommendations made by the Cleveland Health and Hospital Survey. The pages which follow are given to a further discussion of Dr. Reeder's recent article on the function of orphanages.

DOWN in the southern mountains, in a district where the old isolation is giving place rapidly to modern economic and social conditions, is a school that endeavors to help the young people of that part of the country to be of service to their communities by understanding life as it is in their changing world. Leroy F. Jackson, the educational director of Stanley McCormick School, has given us an outline of its course of study (p. 626).

"THERE can be no more suitable return on the generous national investment in colleges and universities than this, that they make an annual contribution of potential leaders." Syracuse University through its School of Citizenship and Public Affairs is trying to fulfill this obligation. Wm. E. Mosher, who discusses the aims and methods of th school (p. 629) is its managing director.

A systematic small-town library where jail service has been organized is that of Ottumwa, Iowa. May B. Ditch, the librarian, gives on p. 631 glimpses of the enthusiastic reception that awaits the Books That Go to Jail.

WHETHER the burly and outspoken Christ Steinkopf is a real figure or not, the point of view in regard to workers' education presented by Israel Mufson (p. 635) is a very real one. Mr. Mufson is secretary of the Labor Education Committee of the Cincinnati Central Labor Council and the University of Cincinnati.

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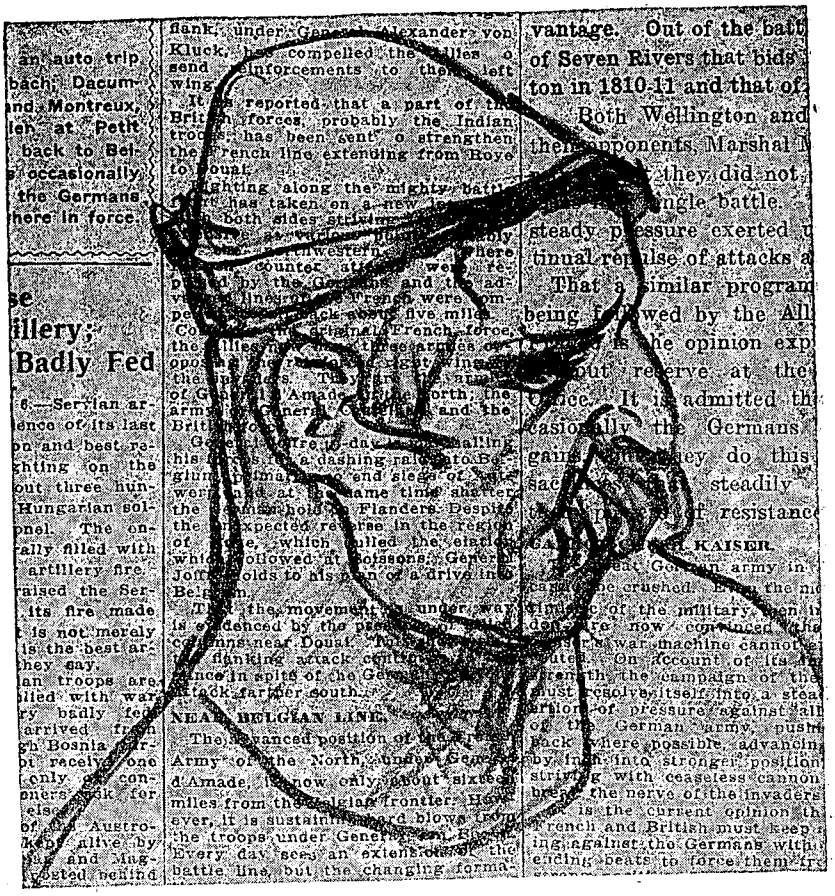

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CONSTRUCTION CREW FOREMAN

A casual sketch on the job

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

September 15
1925

Volume LIV
No. 12

The Most Amazing Strike

By Robert W. Bruère

ON the morning when 150,000 anthracite miners laid down their tools and began their pacifist fight for the check-off and a 10 per cent increase in wages, the editor of a journal of national circulation, whose business it is to keep tab on public opinion as it finds expression in the daily and weekly press, referred to the strike as the most amazing coal strike on record. What he had in mind, he said, was not the disciplined solidarity of the miners nor the Olympian firmness of the operators, but the unprecedented tranquility, the calm indifference of the public. Since 1902, every strike or threat of a strike in the anthracite field had, he observed, been the occasion for as much public interest and excitement as a Scopes trial or a Chapman murder case; but this year the suspension of Babe Ruth was tending to crowd the strike from the front page of the newspapers. It was only by tying in the strike story with speculations as to what President Coolidge might be thinking about it that the editors could keep active public interest alive.

This is, indeed, an amazing situation. Next to water, food and shelter, there are few commodities that so directly affect the health and comfort of millions of families in the Middle Atlantic, New England and Middle Western states as coal and more especially anthracite, because of our traditional dependence upon it as our preferred domestic fuel. Next to the interruption of railroad transportation which means, among other things, the cutting off of food supplies from the urban centers, the interruption of the domestic coal supply has always aroused peculiar public alarm. The anthracite strike of 1902 provoked the intervention of President Roosevelt whose vigorous insistence that the operators should meet the miners in conference and that both should submit to arbitration commanded universal public support. In 1920 President Wilson, again with public approval, compelled both sides to submit to the arbitrament of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission. Had not Governor Pinchot intervened in 1922 it is probable that President Coolidge would have found it necessary to act. In each instance governmental intervention came in response to impatient public demand. This year, in spite of the fact that the strike had been brewing for two months before it actually went into effect, there not only has been no suggestion of immediate intervention from Washington or Harrisburg, but what is more significant, there has been no noticeable public demand for intervention. This may be due in part to the fact that the strike began at the height of the summer season; it may be due to a general confidence that President Coolidge will meet the emergency, if and when it arises. But it is also certainly due in considerable measure to a sense of helplessness on the part of the public and its loss of confidence in the channels of information upon which it must depend for the facts. This deplorable state of affairs is, in my opinion, largely due to the record of the United States Coal Commission appointed by President Harding in 1922.

To social workers and all those who hold their faith in the fundamental democratic doctrine that the progress and security of the commonwealth depends upon enlightened public opinion, the history of that Commission deserves close examination. The peculiar interest which the public had always manifested in coal and the circumstance that as a private industry its records of investment, cost of production, wages and profits were not currently open to public scrutiny, led a group of public-spirited citizens, in the turbulent years immediately following the war, to press for the establishment of a permanent federal fact-finding agency that would keep the public currently informed upon the issues that lead to breakdowns of production and so tend to make public opinion effective in preventing them. It was their hope that the diffusion of reliable knowledge by such an agency would lead to the recognition of coal, and more especially anthracite coal, as an industry "affected with a public interest," the gradual formulation of a national policy with respect to fuel and power, and the protection of the public against

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such inconvenience and suffering as interruption of the coal supply inevitably involves. As the result of the energetic persistence of a handful of disinterested individuals, Congress was finally induced to act. Instead, however, of creating a permanent fact-finding agency on the basis of existing knowledge and experience, Congress adopted the usual course of creating a preliminary commission of inquiry not only for the purpose of laying the groundwork for possible subsequent governmental action, but also with a view to testing out the attitude of the public as developed by the freshly ascertained facts. The prime purpose of the Commission, as those chiefly responsible for its creation conceived it, was to enlighten the public, to stimulate informed public discussion, and to formulate a program which would have behind it active public support.

The act of Congress creating the United States Coal Commission—popularly known at the time as the fact-finding commission—was passed in September, 1922. President Harding, soon thereafter, appointed the Commission, which was to exist for one year. Its active life was, as a matter of fact, eleven months. Congress appropriated $600,000 for its use and granted it wide powers to enable it to secure and make available all the facts, including the right to "make such expenditures for . . . printing . . . as are necessary for the efficient execution of (its) functions." At one time the Commission had in its employ as many as 500 persons. Few commissions have had a public more avid for information and guidance.

THREE years after the creation of the Commission its studies remain unpublished! Except for fragmentary releases to the press, and a small number of cumbersome mimeographed copies made available to importunate individuals, the substance of the Commission's findings are a dead letter. The anthracite strike of September 1, 1925, finds the public almost as deeply mystified over the issues involved in the strike and the merits of the published contentions of the two parties as if the Commission had never existed. The Commission made a thorough-going investigation of the coal industry: it formulated a number of valuable recommendations; but by the manner in which it conducted its inquiries, it not only failed to sustain and consolidate public interest but so completely dampened it that Congress was able to ignore them completely.

In the first place, the Commission, for reasons difficult to comprehend under the circumstances, not only failed to hold public hearings but generally adopted a star chamber procedure with respect to such conferences as it held. On top of this, it permitted itself to go out of existence by statutory limitation without making any provision for the publication of its detailed findings. It was estimated at the time that publication of its full report would cost $17,000. As a matter of fact it turned back to the Treasury between $18,000 and $20,000 of the money which Congress had alloted it. But by the time its fact-finding work was done public interest was so completely exhausted that Congress did not think it worth while to reappropriate $17,000 to print a report that had cost almost $600,000 of the taxpayers' money and toward which, according to members of the Commission, private individuals and groups contributed an additional million. So completely had public interest been dissipated that hardly one person in ten millions knows that on February 6, 1925, Congress finally provided for the publication of the report as a Senate document and for the printing of "5,000 additional copies."

THERE is an interesting story in connection with this congressional action of last February which invites the special reflection of all those who believe in government by the constitutional exercise of enlightened public opinion. Apparently despairing of Congress, some sixteen members of its research and secretarial staff bestirred themselves to make good the Commission's neglect. With exemplary diligence they prepared a volume entitled What the Coal Commission Found, which, with a foreword by the chairman of the Commission, has just been issued by Williams and Wilkins at the list price of five dollars. The government having spent upwards of $600,000 of the public's money for the work of a commission which was to enlighten the public and by its reports and recommendations to the government was to lay the foundation for a national fuel policy, the public may now obtain a summary of the Commission's findings upon the payments of five dollars to a private publishing house in Baltimore!

In the meantime the secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, impressed by the conviction that the expenditure by a special commission of more than half a million dollars without tangible result would make the creation of similar commissions difficult in the future, adopted a course in interesting contrast to that of the sixteen members of the Commission's staff. On December 15, 1923, Senator Oddie introduced a concurrent resolution authorizing the printing of the Commission's report. After months of inaction inquiry at the office of the Senate Committee on Printing elicited the statement that the report would probably never be printed as the then estimated cost of publication had risen to $22,000 and "no report on earth is worth that much money." Through its secretary the American Association for Labor Legislation protested and just before adjournment early in June 1924, the Senate passed the resolution. But the House took no action, although on May 7, 1924, at a hearing on mine safety before the Committee of Mines of the House of Representatives, the secretary of the Association for Labor Legislation again raised the question as to why the report of the Commission had not been made available to the public and declared that if one single recommendation in the section on mine safety of the Commission's report had been put into effect at the time the Commission went out of existence, at least three hundred lives might have been saved in the interval.

In January, 1925, Congress having continued its failure to act, representatives of the Association for Labor Legislation pressed their inquiries and the secretary of the Association, acting practically single-handed, succeeded by his persistence in bringing the matter to a public hearing before the House Committee on Printing. At this hearing, George Otis Smith, a member of the Coal Commission and director of the Geological Survey, when asked by congressmen why the coal operators did not favor publication, stated that agents of the coal mining interests had sent their typists to the bureau where the Coal Commission's report was reposing, and had copied the sections which they thought they could use to advantage, at a cost of perhaps $75 to $100 a section. Asked if this did not amount to practical discrimination against those who could not afford such expense, Mr. Smith agreed that it did. (*Continued on page* 640)

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SURVEY READING LIST: NUMBER NINE

The Question of Coal

By Robert W. Bruère

THE most useful of this year's books for the reader who wants a general and authoritative view of the coal industry is What The Coal Commission Found, an effort on the part of three men who worked with the Commission to give its findings publicity. Especially valuable are the chapters on the Need of a National Policy of Fuels and Power by F. G. Tryon of the Geological Survey, and on the Recommendations of the Commission—Part III of the volume—by Edward Eyre Hunt.

The second of the recent books which will repay the reader's scrutiny is the Miners' Fight for American Standards, by President Lewis of the Miners' Union. This volume puts the case of the organized miners with eloquence and cogency. Particularly significant is the chapter devoted to the subject of mine management. One of the most frequent and just criticisms of the Union's policy is that it has persistently evaded responsibility for the technical problems of the industry.

The third recent volume, which approaches the problems of the coal industry principally from the point of view of the operators and those who have staked their business interests in coal, is The Coal Industry by A. T. Shurick. This study is based upon the reports of the Coal Commission, but it contains fresh matter of the author's own gathering and is especially useful for its description of the technical processes of the industry. It is not, however, a technical book in the conventional sense of that term.

Among the older books possibly the one that will throw most light on the general reader is The Anthracite Question by H. S. Raushenbush. This is one of the few books on anthracite written by a man who is at once a trained investigator, statistician and literary craftsman, and a miner who has dug coal in the anthracite seams. It is the most scholarly analysis of the problems of anthracite since Elliot Jones' The Anthracite Coal Combination in the United States, published as Number XI of the Harvard Economic Studies in 1914. Jones' volume has been measurably outdated by court decisions affecting the anthracite monopoly, but it is still a highly informative book. To this same group belong two documents presented before the United States Coal Commission by the three district presidents of the United Mine Workers in the anthracite field: The Anthracite Monopoly and Anthracite Accounting and Finance, both of which are obtainable from Thomas Kennedy, secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America, Merchants Bank Building, Indianapolis.

Readers who are especially interested in what are conventionally described as the human phases of the coal industry will find The Coal Miners' Insecurity, published by the Russell Sage Foundation, and The Strike for Union by Heber Blankenhorn much to their purpose. The second of these is the first attempt by a competent reporter and analyst to get at the psychological elements in the mass movements of miners and the physical conditions out of which the characteristic states of mind of workers on strike arise. As supplementing and illumining these volumes from the point of view of an experienced mining engineer, Hugh Archbald's Four Hour Day in Coal is invaluable.

Should there be a coal famine this autumn, there will undoubtedly be a revival of interest in various plans to bring the coal industry under some form of public regulation and control, as well as in private experiments designed to circumvent the standing conflict between organized miners and operators. As bearing upon the merit of such private experiments, the most thoroughgoing study so far made is the Russell Sage Foundation report on the Rockefeller Plan in the Coal Mines of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

On the cases for and against government ownership probably the most useful volume is The Debaters' Handbook on Government Ownership of Coal Mines. Useful in this connection, too, are the pamphlets issued by the Nationalization Research Committee of the United Mine Workers — Compulsory Information in Coal and How to Run Coal—obtainable from John Brophy, president district 2, U.M.W. of A., Clearfield, Pa.

For general information about the extent of the coal fields and their economic and political importance, M. R. Campbell's Coal Fields of the United States, published by the Government Printing Office at Washington; E. C. Eckel's Coal, Iron and War; and America's Power Resources by C. G. Gilbert and J. E. Pogue, are particularly useful.

Mr. Bruère Recommends

WHAT THE COAL COMMISSION FOUND, *edited by E. E. Hunt, F. G. Tryon and Joseph H. Willits. Williams & Wilkins Co., Baltimore.* $5.00.

THE MINERS' FIGHT FOR AMERICAN STANDARDS, *by John L. Lewis, President of the United Mine Workers of America. Bell Publishing Co., Indianapolis.* $2.00.

THE COAL INDUSTRY, *by A. T. Shurick. Little, Brown Co., Boston.* $3.50.

THE ANTHRACITE COAL COMBINATION IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Elliott Jones. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.* $1.50.

THE ANTHRACITE QUESTION, *by Hilmar Stephen Raushenbush. Bureau of Industrial Research. H. W. Wilson Co., New York,* $1.50.

THE ANTHRACITE MONOPOLY, *and* ANTHRACITE ACCOUNTING AND FINANCE, *each obtainable from Thomas Kennedy, Secretary-Treasurer United Mine Workers of America, Merchants Bank Bldg., Indianapolis, Ind.*

THE COAL MINERS' INSECURITY, *Russell Sage Foundation, New York,* 50 *cents.*

THE STRIKE FOR UNION, *by Heber Blankenhorn. H. W. Wilson Co., New York.* $2.25.

FOUR HOUR DAY IN COAL, *by Hugh Archbald, H. W. Wilson Co., New York.* $1.50.

EMPLOYES' REPRESENTATION IN COAL MINES, *a study of the Rockefeller Plan in the Colorado Mines of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Co. Russell Sage Foundation, New York.* $2.00.

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF COAL MINES, *by Julia E. Johnson. H. W. Wilson Co., New York.* $2.40.

THE CIVIL WAR IN WEST VIRGINIA, *by W. D. Lane. B. W. Huebsch, N. Y.* 50 *cents.*

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION IN THE COAL INDUSTRY OF AMERICA, *by A. E. Suffern. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston.* $2.25.

COAL FIELDS OF THE UNITED STATES, *by M. R. Campbell. United States Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.*

COAL, IRON AND WAR, *by Edwin C. Eckel. Henry Holt, New York.* $3.00.

AMERICA'S POWER RESOURCES, *The Economic Significance of Coal, Oil and Water Power, by C. G. Gilbert and J. E. Pogue, Century Company, New York.* $2.50.

UNITED MINE WORKERS' JOURNAL, *Merchants Bank Bldg., Indianapolis, Indiana.* $1.00 *per year.*

COAL AGE, *McGraw Hill Company, New York.* $3.00 *per year.*

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What Has Britain Bought?

By Joseph K. Hart

THERE will be industrial peace, of a sort, in Great Britain, until toward May 1, 1926, at least. This respite was purchased by the government on July 31. Whether the government at that time bought the beginnings of a permanent peace, or only a truce that can be used by all parties to get ready for a more deadly war, no one can now say. Meanwhile those parties will do all that they can to strengthen their positions both before the public and in the ears of the inquiry commission. The parties in the strife now seem to be four, namely: first, the owning and employing groups, who will depend largely upon tradition and precedent to maintain their position; second, the trade-union groups, who will use their economic power to compel an intelligent investigation of the whole coal industry; third, the Labor party, which hopes that some increment of political power will accrue to it from the struggle; and forth, the communists and other advocates of salvation by violence, who hope, out of the deadlock, to become heirs of the kingdom. What can come of such an array of forces? Only the first stages in the conflict are now apparent.

The terms of the truce which with dramatic suddenness was announced on July 31, after a day of agonizing apprehension throughout Great Britain, bewildered almost everybody, after the first few moments of general relief were past. The Conservative party had shifted its ground so completely as to amaze all but those besotted members of its own following who never inquire what it is they are supporting—so long as it bears the party label. Within a period of two hours, the government had reversed itself, had recalled all its promises and defiances, and had committed itself to one of the most hotly debated planks of the socialist platform. What the Labor party had wanted to do during its short term of office and could not do because of the opposition of these same Conservatives, this government had now agreed to do; and what these supporters of the government would have voted against a year ago, or even a day ago under any other party label, they were now to be asked to support without question. The nation was to become sponsor for the coal industry. The profits of the owners were to be protected within limits. The living standards of the miners were not to be touched. And the whole industry was to be investigated by a non-partisan "royal commission," under the government's seal that the evils from which the industry was suffering would be corrected, if found, no matter what those evils might turn out to be. Since these were the very things the government had been declaring for weeks that it would not accept or sanction, this last-minute surrender must have been a bitter pill.

The outcome must, in fact, be set down as a complete victory for the labor unions, and as a definitive economic defeat for the government. The government had, indeed, tried for a time to play the role of mediator between the two contending parties, without favoritism to either. It had professed disinterestedness. But the play was not convincing. Its sympathies were with the owners at all stages of the game. The premier, it is true, kept his head at first. But other members of the Cabinet, such as the Home Secretary, Sir William Joynson-Hicks, were not so discreet. And toward the last, in a moment of weariness or desperation, Mr. Baldwin also betrayed his own feelings in such a way as to give the workers an overwhelming tactical advantage, from which, as we shall see, they were not so slow to profit. The facts are interesting enough to be retold briefly.

THE national wage scale agreement between the miners and employers in the coal industry was to expire by limitation at midnight, July 31. But, if neither side proposed a change in the scale, the agreement was to carry on. The employers were dissatisfied. They decided to end the agreement. They gave notice to the miners late in June. British coal, they said, was no longer a serious factor in export trade because the price was too high. The price must be cut or the trade would be ruined. They knew of but one way to reduce prices and that was by cutting wages and, perhaps, by lengthening hours of work. The employers hoped the miners would be reasonable and yield to the hard logic of the cold facts.

But the miners refused to yield. Wages and hours, they said, lay outside the area of argument. They had secured certain standards in those respects and they would not, under any circumstances, permit those standards to be questioned. The coal trade was in a bad way, without doubt. But the arguments of the employers were fallacious. Wages had been cut, time after time, since 1921, to a total of 50 per cent, all on the plea that wage cuts would revive trade, from which the workers would be the first to profit; but trade has grown steadily worse. "How can destroying the market help trade?" the workers asked.

When the employers next insisted that British wages must be cut because miners on the Continent were working for less, thus making British competition impossible, the miners replied that the Continental employers were fondly hoping that British wages would be cut, because that would give them a new basis for a further cut in the wages in their own mines. Hence, said the British miners, if we accept a cut in wages on the ground that German miners are getting less, it will be but a few weeks until we shall be again asked to accept another cut on exactly the same grounds. It's a vicious circle, and we shall keep out of it.

Set your own house in order, said the miners. Get rid of your antiquated methods. Bring in modern engineering technics. Combine your plants under one overhead. Give up trying to run this national industry on the basis of your ancient single-pit organizations. Nationalize your methods, and you will soon see that you can pay higher wages, if necessary, and still make money. Don't ask us workers to pay the cost of your own inefficiencies.

So the arguments ran on, pro and con, until late July. Both sides were obdurate. But, in the newspapers, the obduracy of the miners was accounted for on the ground that they were being directed and, perhaps, financed from Moscow; while the obduracy of the owners was described

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as the character proper to the traditional Britisher. Between the two obdurates, the government was finally compelled to intervene. Premier Baldwin labored long to get the parties together—on terms that could not be satisfactory to either. We may assume that he was disinterested, at least, at first; but he seems to have had no understanding of the forces at work under the surface of the obvious. At any rate, toward the end of the period, he seems to have lost his head. He tried to bully the miners into acceptance of the proposition of the employers. He is reported to have told the miners' committee that not only must the miners accept a wage cut, but that wages were due for a fall all along the line, in all trades.

This was, of course, an amazing tactical blunder. It proved to be the turning point in the campaign. When this statement was made public, it proved a challenge to all the trades unions of the country. It solidified the miners behind their leaders. It gave the Central Trades Council moral authority to throw all its strength to the miners. It made the transport workers decide to support the miners to the extent of tying up all the coal transport of the whole nation. And, as a bit of interesting personal evidence, this statement of Mr. Baldwin's is said to have been responsible for the fact that J. H. Thomas, who had been counselling moderation and cool-headedness all the summer, now came out with all his personal strength for the cause of the miners. With all these forces piling up against it, there was nothing for the government to do but to surrender at discretion.

WHAT did this surrender mean? It meant, that for the moment, at any rate, the workers were the strongest power in the nation. The Labor party might be weak as a political factor, but the workers of the nation wield an enormous economic power. When united and intelligently led, nothing could stand before them.

It meant that in Great Britain, at any rate, evading an argument by begging the question, by calling names or by asking when your opponents "last heard from Moscow," has failed of its former magic. Henceforth, the economic situation will be much healthier, because economic arguments will have to be met, more nearly than formerly, on economic grounds.

It meant that a new use is to be made of the agencies of government; perhaps, an entirely new conception of government may issue from the struggle. Here is an essential industry. It is a bone of contention between two quarreling parties. The government tries to mediate. It fails. Mediation will not work, because the solution of the problem does not lie inside the situation. The solution must be something new, a *tertium quid,* made partly of the contentions of the two parties, partly of a technical and social wisdom that neither party possesses. The government does not see that fact; but it has its choice between civil war and a purchased peace that may discover something better than war.

And this means that government is slowly being forced to become the sponsor for scientific investigations and the use of scientific methods in wider and wider fields. For years, government has fostered, and even compelled, the use of scientific methods in dealing with problems of public health. But in economics? Perish the thought! Now, however, the British government has permitted itself to get into a position from which it cannot escape without a complete uncovering of all the facts, creditable and discreditable, that have a bearing on the case. And when those facts have been found, the government is under obligation to use all its prestige and legal powers, if necessary, to get the findings of the commission accepted and put into operation, no matter which side is hurt or helped. This is implied, at any rate. The government may try to back out at the last moment; but the forces of public opinion have been let loose, and backing out may prove more costly than going ahead.

But such "meanings" as have just been enumerated are not going to be accepted by the British "body politic" without some very great groanings and quakings. There was nothing light or easy about the situation as it developed in late July. Sane men talked much, in quiet, about "national disaster," "national doom," "revolution," "the end of the Empire." There was more to the struggle than appeared on the surface, more than a petty contest about a few pence in the wage scales. It was a real struggle, not an academic debate; and it shook the foundations of British civilization; nor is the shaking over and done. Those foundations will continue to shake through these months during which the royal commission is making its investigations, and they may shake to pieces when that commission makes its report.

THAT struggle between the miners and the employers in the coal industry was much more than a struggle over wages and hours. It was, in the first place, a struggle between a group of workers and the owners of work opportunities over the *right* to a standard of living. The workers had achieved certain standards. They claimed those standards as a minimum economic right, and, therefore, as the *first charge against wealth produced by the industry,* taking precedence over all other claims or "rights," whatsoever. They refused to admit, for an instant, that any deficit incurred by the industry, in the management of which they were not represented, should be chargeable to their share of the product. They said: "The owners run this industry. Very well: If they incur a deficit, let them find out how to meet it on their own side of the line. Let them not think they can make us pay for their own managerial ineptitude." What could any group of owners and employers do but fight such an argument? And, if the workers win their contentions in this respect, who can tell what their victory may mean in the future of industry?

Stratum after stratum, this conflict must be investigated. In the second place, this was a struggle between practical workers and traditional management over the question as to who knew the most about running the mining industry, as a whole. Management claimed that the industry must meet foreign competition or fail, and that, in order to meet competition, wages must be cut. The miners presented argument after argument, plan after plan, in the pages of their journals, in public speeches and in the meetings of committees, showing new ways of dealing with the whole industry. They showed wider understanding of the problems of the industry and broader acquaintance with the technics that had been developed in other lands than most of the managers were able to show. None the less, in almost all cases, management lightly waved this larger understanding aside, When they wanted help of that kind from the workers, they intimated, they would ask for it. Meanwhile, if the workers would spend more time digging coal

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and less time telling the management how to run the business, it would be better for all concerned! None the less, it is inevitable that the royal commission must listen to the miners on these questions, in spite of the prejudices of the management. But what is to happen to an industry, if it should turn out that the workers know more about how it should be run than do the managers, themselves?

A third stratum. It is now being rather generally admitted that the most important factor in getting coal into its precarious position in the early summer was the financial recklessness of the government and The Bank. The pound sterling, stood at about $4.40 in the exchanges. The treasury wanted it at par. That meant a 10 per cent increase in value. By a financial *coup* this was accomplished. But when the pound went up, everything offered in export trade went up at the same time. The coal trade had been fairly prosperous. The foreign market began to refuse to take British coal at the new price, sterling. The market began to fall off. Mines began to close. The owners called for relief. No one quite knew, then, what had happened. The old and obvious solution was proposed: wages must be cut. The ruinous increase in the export price of coal must be offset by a cut in wages. The only thing that stood in the way of the plan was the obduracy of the miners. "Must we, in our poverty, pay for the financial follies of the government, too?" they said. So far, the answer is conclusive. But shall workers be allowed to show up the government as well as the management of industry?

A fourth stratum. The most casual visitor to Great Britain, this past summer, must have been struck by the fact that the news columns of the British papers were being almost completely monopolized by two types of news incidents, namely, those dealing with the growing seriousness of the industrial outlook, and those detailing the unusual brilliance of the London social season. It seemed at times as if these two ranges of news were distinctly compensatory: the more gloomy the industrial outlook became, the more colorful became the social pageant; and at the very last, when many millions had no idea whether the next day would see them employed or, out of work, fighting for a bare existence, more hundreds of thousands than were ever known before were on their way to the sea-side for a holiday without a care. Some will say that this was a happy arrangement, and typically British; that it was the sporty thing; that, in short, if the nation was doomed, it were better to go down with high courage and a brilliant smile than whining like a whipped dog.

But who is the nation? The workers were not so cheerful. They saw in this "cheerfulness" of the thousands who were on their way to Cowes to witness the annual yacht races the fundamental fact in their own struggle. This contest which seemed to superficial observers merely a petty dispute between workers and employers over a few pence in wages, was in reality a cosmic struggle between the two great British classes, the workers, on the one hand, and the leisure class, on the other, for the control of a certain surplus of wealth produced by industry. The actual question in dispute was as to whether more, and ever more of the wealth of the nation should be allocated to the "leisure class" so that each successive "London season" could be more brilliant than the last. Industry was already carrying some millions of the "unemployed" of the working class; the passing years were bringing more and more aspirants to membership in the "unemployed" of the leisure class. There was only one way, after all—and here the employers and owners occupied an impregnable position—by which all these "unemployed" and "leisure class" people could be supported "in the style to which they had been accustomed," and that was by cutting down the amount of produced wealth which was allocated to the workers; that is, by cutting wages.

That is to say, the real question at issue, in the opinion of the workers, was this: In the present state of British industry and British finance, can Great Britain continue to afford a *leisure class?* And the reply of the miners was: "Not if we have to finance that class out of our poverty!"

THE fight is far from being ended; it will continue to be a long, bitter and heart-breaking struggle, on both sides. The workers accuse the employers and the leisure class of "inhumanity"; and the employers and leisure class accuse the workers of "ingratitude." There are optimists who feel that there can be no permanent doubt as to which way the balance of advantage will eventually turn, the question being, merely, as to when the workers will begin to shape the struggle toward victory. They hold that the real significance of the surrender of the government to the workers on July 31 was this, that both the government and the employers were compelled to admit—in the face of overwhelming economic strength—that the first charge against industry must be the needs of the workers.

But there's the rub: they "were compelled to admit" this contention. Will they continue to admit it, without compulsion? Only the foolish believe that they will. The workers must make good their case before the royal commission; they must get a public opinion that will compel the adoption of the report of that commission, even though it should leave the employers not a leg to stand upon; and they must develop a new technic of industrial management by which they will be able to take over and run those industries which they have demonstrated the present managers do not know how to run, but which, assuredly, will not run themselves. This is a large order, and there is one factor of weakness in the labor movement which may determine the whole matter, one way or the other.

That factor is the political ambitions of the Labor party. I sat in the gallery of the House of Commons all the day, that decisive 31st of July, and listened to a debate between the Government and the Opposition on a question of the rights of the unemployed. The Government, needing to economize in order to balance its budget, had decided to save some six millions, sterling, by taking it out of the "doles" of the unemployed. It was a particularly mean proposal. The Government offered the need of economy as its only justification. The Labor party speakers did their utmost to develop a bit of human sympathy in the members of the governmental party. But when the division came at 3.40, it was clear that they had scarcely held their own vote. They were not able to convince anyone else. It is doubtful whether the Labor party is as strong in the country, today, as it was a year ago. The bye-elections held in the past few months give it no encouragement, whatever.

On the other had, no sooner was that political defeat of July 31 announced by the speaker, than the Prime Minister, Mr. Baldwin, arose to announce what the press promptly called "the greatest economic victory ever achieved

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by the workers in the history of Great Britain." Labor has much more power today in the economic field than ever before. And there is good reason for believing that the trades unions will gain increasing power in the economic field. But there is also good reason for assuming that the more the unions increase their economic power, the more they will lose their former political strength. It seems likely that the more powerful the workers become in the economic area, the more the electorate will fear them and turn away from them. The voter seems likely to offset the growing economic power of the unions by throwing his vote to the Conservative party. This seems to be the present tendency.

This will mean that what the labor unions gain by their economic strength will be secured to them, politically, in so far as it needs political security, by the parliamentary work of the Conservative party—the thing that has just happened. There will be nothing strangely new, or even undesirable, about this. It will give a certain stability and balance to the national life. When the Conservative is hit over the head, or in the pocket, by an idea, he can usually do it the justice of trying to understand it; and it must be admitted that when a Conservative becomes acquainted with a new idea, he shows less fear of it than might have been supposed. He may even favor its organization into the national tradition, without question. When it comes to working out this latter process, he is generally better at it, too, than is the radical who first proposed the idea.

It may turn out, therefore, that the Labor groups will have to give up, at least for the present, their hope of supremacy in the political life of the nation, and be content with the more important career of being all powerful in the economic life. Thus they will be in a position to compel progress, while permitting that progress to maintain a certain continuity with the past.

Those who have political ambitions, of course, will not like this role. But the logic of events will deal with them. Civilization is more important than the ambitions of individuals. And civilization in Europe, today, needs new foundations. Those foundations the working classes can lay, if they will force the issues squarely along economic lines, as the British workers have just been doing. Such a forcing of the issues along economic lines, with whatever of reconstruction may follow, will frighten timid souls and vested groups, of course, and it will induce scores of thousands of people to "take their holidays while they may, for tomorrow may not be another day." But certainly no one acquainted with conditions in Europe today can doubt that a civilization built on the new foundations which Labor is seeking to lay in Great Britain will be more stable and secure than the structures of the past have been.

Kansas: Proud But Puzzled

By Stuart A. Queen

IT is Monday noon in a Kansas town. The Kiwanis Club has gathered for its weekly luncheon, song-fest and discussion. There are three guests. One is a chamber of commerce secretary from a neighboring state. One is a university professor who is to speak on The Underprivileged Child. The third is a small boy of ten years, who looks to be not more than eight, with tousled hair, bare feet, torn shirt and dirty overalls. The editor of the local newspaper introduces him. "This is Wollie Ross.—Wollie, stand up on this chair.—Wollie came up town this morning trying to sell a couple of old golf balls he found out on the course. He wanted some money to buy his mother some bacon. His father is over at Lansing (the state prison). We've been talking about the underprivileged child. Now here's one of them; and I believe we can do something for him, even if he does come from a worthless, no 'count family. You can sit down now, Wollie." Wollie is somewhat embarrassed by the presence of the town's notables and by the hotel dining room. But he apparently pays little attention to the description of his family and is soon lost in his fried chicken.

After the Kiwanians adjourn there is a conference in the chamber of commerce office attended by fifteen citizens who are interested in a community chest. It seems that they had one last year. It was literally a chest—a wooden box set on a prominent street corner with a card inviting the benevolent to drop in their mites. Apparently the donations were neither large nor numerous. No report was ever made of the receipts or disbursements. There was more or less grumbling. Here in this little meeting grievances were aired, the possibilities and limitations of community chests were discussed. The group decided to come together again to consider the matter further before taking any definite action. . . .

The scene changes. It is Friday evening in another Kansas town. The Chamber of Commerce is having its annual "ladies' night," with dinner, music and speaking at the Methodist Church. After the blessing, the women of the church serve a sumptuous repast. Between courses an unusually good double quartette entertains the hundred members and their guests. After dinner the speaker of the occasion addresses the folk on "What is a Community?" He talks about team-work, local pride, leadership and toleration, the acceptance and the integration of distinctive subgroups, without the suppression of vital differences. He builds up his ideas with many concrete illustrations. The audience listens respectfully and apparently with interest and understanding. After the address, the president rises to thank the speaker and remarks, "Who knows, if we should follow all these splendid suggestions, how *big* —— would be in five years!"

Again the scene changes. This time it is a high school commencement in a rural village. There was to have been a picnic in the "city park," but it has rained all day, so a box luncheon in the school house has been substituted. In the afternoon two teams of older boys play basketball in an old storeroom. As evening comes on the rain continues to fall. One by one mud-covered "flivvers," buggies and farm wagons straggle in from "the country." By half past eight seventy-five people have assembled in the Odd Fellows' Hall. The corrugated iron walls have been enlivened by bits of bunting and a few flowers. The oil

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lamps furnish a surprisingly good light. Now the important persons of the occasion file on the platform—the graduating class of four, the faculty of two, the Presbyterian minister and the speaker from a distant college.

The natural grouping of the audience is interesting to note. Down in front are children from eight to twelve years of age; behind them are parents with younger brothers and sisters; in the rear are older boys and girls, a few paired off, but for the most part separated as though by some regulation. All through the "exercises" babies cry, children whisper and shuffle their chairs, but their elders are indifferent to all this. They have come to see the graduating class and perhaps to hear the speaker. They are almost solemnly attentive. These people have not much wealth. They are making sacrifices to give their children even a high school education. This is a very serious occasion to them.

To the outsider the "exercises" are thoroughly conventional and pretty much of a bore. There is a badly played violin solo, a fairly good quartette of high school girls, a lengthy prayer by the clergyman, a rather dull address by the college professor, the valedictorian's burst of oratory and the awarding of diplomas. After it is all over the speaker retires to his room in the hotel, with its kerosene lamp, wash-stand, pitcher and bowl, dingy wall paper and out-door privy. But the bed is clean and comfortable; no sleep is lost. Next morning, after an enormous breakfast he takes the local train—"cushion cars" the mail carrier calls them—back to the college town. . . .

TWICE during the past twelve-month "socially minded" folk in Kansas have attempted a sort of rough and ready social inventory. In October 1924 the president of the State Conference of Social Work consolidated the estimates of various "participant observers" in a paper which, contrary to custom and expectation, aroused considerable discussion. One of the contributors summarized the whole situation by saying, "It seems to me that we are gaining in spots, but losing at the top." What he had in mind was the absence of real state-wide leadership, while here and there individual communities were making headway in the meeting of their various social needs.

Most obviously at the "top" was the State Board of Administration, controlling some twenty state institutions, educational, correctional, medical, psychiatric and custodial, and supervising various private agencies. Appointed by a governor who did not hesitate to dismiss a member for refusing to do his bidding, the men on this board really cast but one vote. The very serious consequences of such undue centralization, combined with unfortunate personalities, were clearly demonstrated a few weeks later in the attacks upon the state university [see The Survey, Feb. 1, 1925. p. 545]. But this deficiency "at the top" was also demonstrated in the State Board of Health and the consequent weakening of public health work throughout the state. It was this that another commentator had in mind when he wrote:

> I think you may well say that the people of Kansas, in their present craze for economy, are showing a strong desire to have their cake without paying for it. Kansas is still a progressive state, and we still wish to have improvements, but the people do not yet seem to realize that such improvements can not be had unless they are willing to bear the expense. . . . I do not know just where we are traveling in Kansas, but I have no doubt that the good quality of Kansas people indicates that, in health matters, we are "on our way." It is only fair to say, however, that temporarily we have reached a detour that is very muddy and boggy and in which at times we seem to be almost sinking.

But even in October, 1924, there were some hopeful signs "at the top." Kansas was, and is, served by an effective state tuberculosis association, through surveys, clinics and various kinds of education work. Also there were, and are, the representatives of the Red Cross, going into a large number of Kansas towns and counties, carrying inspiration, information and constructive assistance in working out local problems. A year before there had been organized a Council of Statewide (Social) Agencies. This had grown out of extended discussion, in which was voiced a strong sense of the need for better understanding and greater cooperation among the state-wide organizations most concerned with the public welfare. No startling results had yet been achieved, but real headway had already been made in the direction of better acquaintance with the work of various agencies and with their common tasks.

Some of the "spots" in which gains were being made were these. Hutchinson was in its third year of a visiting teacher demonstration; this being one of the ventures financed by the Commonwealth Fund. McPherson County manifested an unusually fine spirit of cooperation: the social service of the Red Cross, the county relief office, the juvenile court and the schools had been unified under the direction of a professional social worker. Wichita had developed a most interesting series of community instruments—first, a council of churches, next a council of social agencies and then a community chest. The leadership in Wichita was, as it still is, especially strong and a force, not only within the city, but throughout the state.

IN April, 1925, another stock-taking was attempted, this time by the Council of Statewide Agencies. In some respects the findings were different from those of the preceding October; in others they were much the same. Between the two meetings there had been a general election which brought a new governor and a new party to power. The personnel of the Board of Administration was changed completely, and several state institutions took a new lease on life. The legislature displayed a not unusual inability to get together on a constructive program, the lower house voting fairly generous appropriations for public health, education and other phases of the public welfare, the upper house wielding the axe of economy. The proposed child labor amendment was voted down, the Sheppard-Towner Act was ignored, and a hostile attitude was displayed toward all "interference of the Federal Government in matters belonging 'as a matter of right' to the several states." Through the new governor's influence, the legislature was induced to "take the state schools out of politics" by providing for a Board of Regents, consisting of nine persons, serving overlapping, four-year terms, without salary or per diem. The only fly in this ointment is a provision that the new board may "at its discretion" discharge any member of the staff of any of the educational institutions. Finally, the legislature combined what the courts had left of the Court of Industrial Relations with two other state departments into a new Public Service (*Continued on page* 640)

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The Common Welfare

THE sooner the United States can determine whether a man who wishes to enter this country as an immigrant is or is not admissible, the easier, in general, his lot will be. The tragedy of rejection at Ellis Island—be the conditions of detention good or bad—is so familiar to social workers there that any practicable means of reducing the uncertainty must be welcomed by those most familiar with the personal problems involved. The current law, by providing that a preliminary weeding-out shall take place at American consulates abroad, and removing the enormous hazard which the priority provisions of the old quota law imposed, moves in the right direction.

But within the limits of this general principle there is room for a difference of opinion as to the complete elimination of final tests at Ellis Island. During the summer it has been announced that the Department of Labor has experimented with examinations overseas and on shipboard which, in the case of some English-speaking immigrants, have entirely superceded the former inspection at Ellis Island, so that an alien may step from his boat to the pier on Manhattan Island without even passing through the immigration station. Putting aside for the moment the obvious difficulties which non-English speaking aliens might be subjected to by such an arrangement, some social workers concerned with immigration are giving careful attention to other possible defects in this plan.

MANY such workers would be loth to see Ellis Island eliminated. After being passed by medical and immigration inspectors abroad a man may still become infected by venereal disease; unmarried mothers in the early stages of pregnancy, whom the women physicians at Ellis Island easily discover, may slip by unless the examination given abroad is as thorough as that given here. It seems fair so say that examinations made at many points overseas by variously qualified personnel will be difficult to standardize and all but impossible to supervise. They may be too lax to detect the less obvious infections, and on the other hand, if the examining physician rejects every person not healthy beyond a shadow of doubt real hardship may be created in family groups in which one or two members need more careful consideration. In any case the facilities for appeal, review and such special adjustments as the situation calls for, which exist at Ellis Island, would seem to be lacking, and the process is so far removed from the observation of the American public that it will be hard to correct the arbitrary decisions which are so easily made. The immigrant, to be sure, has no vested right to the privilege of entry, but with the sharply reduced quotas in force it is difficult at best for families now divided to come together in the new country, and no needless barriers should be placed in the way of that desirable social process.

There also is the equally serious question of the relationship of the applicant to the person whose affidavit of support he holds. The inspector working abroad can make his decision only on the basis of this, which is supposed to contain the "truth and nothing but the truth," having been sworn to before a notary public, but which often contains only such truths as will fit the need of the immigrant and his friends. To-day, when an elaborate visa system has been put into practice by the United States government for its protection as well as that of the immigrant, hundreds of aliens have to be detained on Ellis Island every week for careful examination by the Board of Special Inquiry, and relatives and friends must often be summoned from far and near to clear up a case of doubtful status. Examinations abroad, without check here, may create numerous opportunities for fraud in the importation of all sorts of undesirables.

There remains the question of getting the immigrant safely to his destination after disembarkation. Discharging him at the docks proved so impractical and so dangerous in the months following the close of the war, when it was tried, that the agencies interested in the welfare of the immigrant petitioned the government to use Ellis Island again as an immigration station.

Exploitation thrives without bounds whenever outsiders have access to the newly-arrived, who, strangely enough, prefer to believe a glib-tongued hotel runner or some busybody rather than an agent of a welfare organization, even when he speaks their tongue. Immigrants examined on Ellis Island now need not pass through New York city; they are sent to the stations on the New Jersey side, where the station-masters see that they board the right train at the right time without being molested.

Aside from recurring special needs—the need, for instance, for a place of detention and care when an immigrant has fallen sick at sea—it is still an open question whether it is possible or wise to short-circuit Ellis Island. The experiments which the Bureau of Immigration is carrying on need long observation and careful study.

WHILE the National Crime Commission continues its preliminary work of building up a distinguished directorate, and New York looks forward to its own state survey, the Missouri Association for Criminal Justice reports that its "audit" of the administration of the criminal law is making headway and that findings may be ready in January.

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This organization was formed last fall and, with Arthur V. Lashly, a St. Louis attorney, as managing director, has been making a systematic investigation of felony cases in three large cities and eleven counties. "After the experience of the last few months on this work," Mr. Lashly writes, "it is a source of wonder to me, not that so many guilty criminals escape punishment, but that so many of them are convicted and punished," and continues:

> The lack of coordination between the various agencies charged with the duty of apprehending, prosecuting and punishing the persons charged with and convicted of crime, and the handicaps under which they are laboring, is most deplorable, and if the people put up with it after the facts are made known to them, one is almost tempted to say that they are not entitled to governmental protection of their lives and property.

Special studies in connection with this Missouri investigation have to do with the work of the city police, the sheriffs and coroners, and the parole system. Especially interesting is the fact that a committee of the state medical association will also make a psychiatric study of the treatment of those arrested and convicted.

It is all but unthinkable that students of crime "prevention" should ignore the whole new horizon of understanding which is opened by psychiatric investigation. And yet when the International Prison Congress, meeting in London in August, adopted as one of its unanimous recommendations the "compulsory education of judges in psychology, sociology, penitentiary science and the healing of mental diseases," a New York justice, Judge Alfred Talley of the Court of General Sessions, was quoted in the press as remarking that

> the recommendation that judges receive compulsory education in psychology, sociology, etc., is just plain foolishness. Our need is for judges who know the law and who exercise their judicial functions with a view to the best possible protection of the community they are supposed to serve; men who have the courage to face unpleasant duties without flinching. . . . What we need also is prisons that are prisons—not country clubs, radio parlors and recreation centers.

Dean Roscoe Pound of the Harvard Law School has done a service in reminding the public of the danger of "hysterical crusades without any solid basis in scientific ascertainment of the facts." "Our whole system of criminal justice," he remarks, "devised for rural pioneer agricultural America (and still working reasonably well in rural communities, where the conditions obtain for which it was devised) needs to be studied functionally with reference to the needs of urban industrial America of today."

The glaring fact which lies athwart all our panaceas and rules of thumb is that we do not understand either the criminal or our own attitude toward him. So long as public policy vibrates uncertainly between the tenets of the old "penology" and the fresh hypotheses of psychology we shall have confusion, inconsistency—and crime.

THOSE who see in the crime crusade merely a call for "stiffening up" our penal processes will not be greatly interested in such remote reinforcements as those offered by the visiting teacher. But those who believe that individual variations from acceptable behavior must first be understood and then dealt with on an individual basis, and must be dealt with long before they reach the stage legally known as criminal, will be heartened by the fact that ten cities in which three-year demonstrations of visiting teacher work have just been completed with the help of the Commonwealth Fund have adopted the visiting teacher as a regular feature of their public education systems. The cities are Burlington, Vt.; Lincoln, Neb.; Richmond, Va.; Red Bank, N. J.; Kalamazoo, Mich.; Sioux City, Ia.; Bluefield, W. Va.; Sioux Falls, S. D.; Warren, Ohio; and Hutchinson, Kansas. A humble list it is, and the most ardent friend of the visiting teacher's service would hardly claim that the hurried tentative fragmentary adjustments which the visiting teacher helps difficult children to make will materially lessen the burden of adult delinquency. But it is such straws in the wind, more than all the headlines and chamber of commerce resolutions, which give promise of better days for the generations which will provide the burglars and stick-up men of tomorrow and the day after.

AFTER voting down earlier in the session a bill to limit the issuance of injunctions in labor disputes (see The Survey, May 15, 1925), the legislature of Illinois passed before its adjournment a shorter and verbally less comprehensive measure of the same nature. The representatives of organized labor in Illinois are to be congratulated upon their indefatigability and upon the substantiality of the pressure which they were able to bring to bear—clear evidence of widespread dissatisfaction with the injunctive usages of courts of equity in labor disputes. The bill which passed, however, like that which failed, is important rather as an expression of this dissatisfaction than for any distinct coercive limitations which its provisions may be expected to impose upon injunction judges.

Like the famous, but disappointing, Section 20 of the Clayton Act from which it derives, it forbids the issuance of injunctions against peaceable non-intimidatory picketing and persuasion. It will be held constitutional provided it is construed as conferring no immunity from injunctions forbidding acts of peaceful picketing and persuasion which are (by judicial ratiocination) unlawful and which threaten irreparable (in judicial contemplation) injury to employers' property rights as judicially conceived. The Supreme Court decision as to its Arizona prototype (Truax v. Corrigan, 257 U. S. 312) leaves it clear that a construction giving sweeping effect to the Illinois law would be held unconstitutional; even the holding of the Supreme Court of Illinois last December (in the case of J. N. St. Clair) that libellous abuse of nonstrikers may not, by reason of the free speech clause of the state constitution, be punished as a contempt of an injunction is perhaps not proof against the acid bite of the Fourteenth Amendment as applied in the Arizona case.

For any fundamental re-proportioning of the influence upon judicial decisions of other human interests than those in private property we must look either to constitutional amendment or to the growth of an overwhelming public sentiment to which judges will find it expedient, in spite of their own precedents, to respond.

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HEALTH

Sick Wanderers

FOR more than a generation, the beneficial effect of climate in the Southwest has become a tradition to health seekers. And that it is not merely a tradition is attested by the population of many cities in this section, the majority of whom have come seeking health, have found it and have remained substantial and enthusiastic citizens.

In later years, the special climatic advantages of the Southwest have been put forth in attractive advertising by various commercial bodies of the larger cities. And by the Southwest is meant not only the mountainous country of Colorado and California, but also the arid deserts of New Mexico, Arizona and parts of Texas.

It is not surprising, then, that the message of getting well in the Southwest has reached not only the well-to-do but the health seekers in reduced circumstances, who have the same urge to recover their health. For over a decade, the health workers of the Southwest, and especially the tuberculosis workers, have been holding up their hands in helplessness and crying out against the influx of the tuberculous, who are coming, they say, in increasing numbers, without funds, and are becoming a serious financial and health burden on the various communities to which they migrate.

For some years this seemed to be the most serious social problem in the tuberculosis campaign in the United States; it is still probably a leading one. About four years ago, the National Tuberculosis Association, having listened so long to the plaints of the health workers from the Southwest, determined to find out to what extent this problem was a burden financially and otherwise, and for this purpose selected for study six cities of the Southwest which seemed to be centers of the migratory problem. These six cities were San Antonio and El Paso, Texas; Los Angeles, California; Phoenix, Arizona, and Denver and Colorado Springs in Colorado. The study was an attempt to discover how great the burden of the indigent tuberculous was in these cities.

A very thorough and searching study of the records of all social agencies which might deal with tuberculous poor was made. The term "indigent" was interpreted to mean any person who could not entirely finance his care and cure. The degree of indigency varied greatly. Some persons needed only free medical or nursing care, others were in need of temporary aid, while many were dependent almost entirely upon the community for their living and care.

THE first important finding of the study was the extent of the tuberculosis problem. In the six cities there was a total of 7,319 tuberculous individuals cared for by municipal agencies during a single year, two-thirds of whom had resided in those cities less than two years. This meant an average of one indigent tuberculous person to every 155 of the entire population of those cities. This record contrasts sharply with that of Cleveland where a similar study showed that only 11 per cent of all tuberculous persons reached by the social agencies were non-residents.

The cities with the smallest population, of course, bore the greatest burden. Phoenix, with a population of only about 30,000, had the greatest ratio of indigent tuberculous persons, or one to every 58 of the population. Colorado Springs, practically the same size, had one indigent tuberculous person to every 78 of the population. San Antonio and Los Angeles had the smallest ratio, with El Paso and Denver next.

Another important feature disclosed was the fact that many tuberculous persons bring their families along with them and thus add to the community not only the financial burden of themselves, but also the care of the added members of the family.

It is more often the woman health seeker who is accompanied by her family. Seventy per cent of the women brought some or all of their family with them, but only thirty per cent of the men. The family problem, then, becomes one of the most troubling features in the care of the tuberculous, although the "homeless man" problem is the greatest numerically. In the study of the six cities, in addition to the 7,000 or more tuberculous health seekers themselves, there were 9,000 members of their immediate families; more than 5,000 of these were children under 16. To one familiar with the preventive work of public agencies interested in tuberculosis, the added burden of the care of these family contact cases will be obvious.

It might perhaps be surprising to those who are familiar with tuberculosis only as a disease of adults, to know that one-tenth of all the patients in the six cities studied were children under 14 and one per cent were under 4 years of age. Only half of the cases recorded were born in the United States. The largest single foreign group was the Mexicans, who were found in large numbers in El Paso, San Antonio and Los Angeles. Nearly three-fourths of all cases were men.

A particular feature of the study was to determine from which section of the country the migrants came. It was found that a few states only were responsible for most of it. They were in order, Illinois, New York, Missouri, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Michigan. The patients from these states were chiefly from the six large cities which they contain.

That these health seekers come without any funds for caring for themselves, expecting that they will somehow be miraculously cared for or will be able to get "light work," which is non-existent, is shown by the fact that one-third had applied for aid before they had been in the Southwest three months. The women were better provided for at

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the start or were more resourceful in placing themselves, since only 20 per cent of them asked for assistance within the first month as compared to 40 per cent of the men.

The financial burden borne by the various communities as a result of this migration cannot be exactly measured. As far as possible, however, the cost of all tuberculous activities in each of the cities was ascertained. The results show that the highest cost was in Phoenix where the cost of the support and relief of the tuberculous was $1.75 annually for each member of the community—men, women and children. The financial burden in San Antonio was least. Colorado Springs, a small community like Phoenix, carried a large financial burden in an annual cost of $1.00 per capita.

Probably the saddest and most tragic part of the story was the impossibility of finding out what happened ultimately to these tuberculous migrants. That fact is of the most vital concern, a test of the community's treatment of them. From the records, it was found that 54 per cent could not be traced, 13 per cent had died, 10 per cent were known to have moved out of the city, and only about one-fourth were known to be still in the city at the end of the year.

THERE can be no question that climate alone is not able to cure. To be successful in his quest for cure the patient must have rest, proper food, clothing and housing, and freedom from worry, as well as the benefit of climate. The indigent tuberculous come to the Southwest with none of these other necessary aids. As a result the deaths from tuberculosis in one county of Arizona constitute one-third of all deaths, and the death rate of the state is over 300 per 100,000. It has therefore been the purpose of the National Tuberculosis Association and its affiliated state associations to attempt to keep these wanderers from a search which can result only in failure.

Many state tuberculosis associations, principally of the Middle West, have attempted to stem the tide by publishing folders with such titles as "Get well in Indiana" or "Take the cure in Michigan." In these folders they attempt to present the advantages of treatment at home with adequate care, and freedom from worry, as against an attempt at the cure in the Southwest without sufficient funds. The National Tuberculosis Association also has attempted to define these same advantages of treatment at home in its publicity.

TO learn whether or not this campaign of publicity had been successful in reducing the number of indigent tuberculous in the Southwest, was the object of a study (1925) by the National Tuberculosis Association. It was thought that by comparing the figures obtained in the study of four years ago with present figures obtained on a strictly comparable basis, it would be possible to find out whether the migration to this section was increasing, decreasing or stationary.

Accordingly Phoenix and Colorado Springs, two of the six cities formerly studied, were selected for comparative purposes. These were chosen, primarily, because of their smaller population and because, accordingly, they had had the largest ratio of the tuberculous to the general population. The recent study shows that there has been a slight decline in the number of dependent tuberculous persons cared for in Phoenix, amounting to approximately 9 per cent.

But one must remember that between the two years 1920 and 1924 there has been a 20 per cent decline in the death rate and a corresponding decline in the incidence of the disease. Therefore one might expect that if the migration of indigents to the Southwest had kept pace only with the decreasing incidence of the disease there might have been a 20 per cent decline in the number found in those cities in 1924 while, as a matter of fact, Phoenix showed a decrease of only 9 per cent. Therefore we must conclude that instead of a decrease in migration there has been a relative increase.

While no definite study was made in El Paso, inquiries indicated that the migratory tuberculosis situation in that city probably showed a slight numerical decline which would amount to an increase when viewed in the light of the general decreased incidence of the disease. In El Paso 42 per cent of all cases handled by the Associated Charities were transient tuberculous and 65 per cent of the budget is spent on them. In Los Angeles there has undoubtedly been an increase in the number of tuberculous cared for and this is probably true also of Denver.

But the most interesting fact brought out in the recent study is the very definite and decided increase in the number of indigent tuberculous in Colorado Springs. Between 1920 and 1924 there was an increase of 21 per cent in the number of indigent tuberculous persons cared for in that city. The former study included 385 persons; the latter one, 466.

IN commenting on the results of the earlier study, the writer said, "None of these cities has anything like adequate provision—medical, relief, or institutional—for caring for tuberculous persons whether resident or non-resident." After four years that statement is still true.

Colorado Springs however is probably better equipped to cope with the problem than any of the other six cities and in addition it has less intolerance for tuberculous persons. It has definitely recognized the problem of the indigent health seeker and is taking all who come, the poor with the rich, and attempting to meet its obligations in this respect. News of that sort spreads rapidly among health-seekers, and it is undoubtedly on this account that the migration to Colorado Springs has increased so tremendously.

The policy of Phoenix for many years was to return, on half-rate charity tickets, non-residents whose residence could be established, and who were tuberculous and liable to become a charge on the community. That policy cost considerable money but it relieved the community of a continuing burden. In Colorado Springs, however, this practice is seldom invoked and usually only in cases where the patient is willing to return.

We were interested to know whether these increases in migration in Phoenix and Colorado Springs had been attended by any major changes in the character of it.

In the recent year or two much has been written about the "gasoline gypsies," as they are picturesquely called. With the increase in facilities for purchasing cheap automobiles, many families are following the well known slogan and seeing America first. For a time, the health workers of the Southwest claimed that this was greatly increasing their burden because many tuberculous persons were arriving in autos, in various degrees of dilapidation, accompanied by

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large families. However, it has been found by several studies that these migrants are not by any means in the majority, and that only 30 per cent of them are tuberculous. They are therefore only a single phase of the problem, and by no means the most important one.

Many phases of the general character of the migration remain unchanged and confirm the accuracy and generality of the findings of the earlier report. As regards the proportion of men, the need for aid shortly after arrival, the proportion of the migrants who bring their families, the age-groups, the percentages in the two years 1920 and 1924 are practically the same.

A very interesting phase of the study was the fact that the sources of migration to Colorado Springs had changed slightly, Missouri, Kansas, Illinois were first, second and third in the number of their residents sent to Colorado Springs in 1920 and they had the same order and rank in 1924. Oklahoma, Kentucky and Indiana were fourth, fifth and sixth in 1920, and had the same rank in 1924 with a slight change in the order.

While the fatality rate among all known cases may not be a particularly significant figure, it is of interest to note that in Phoenix in 1924 there was one known death in every six cases; in 1920 there was one known death to every seven cases. In Colorado Springs in 1920 the ratio was one death to every seven cases and in 1924 one death to ten cases.

In Colorado Springs there seems to be no large group of foreign born among the non-resident tuberculous, while in Phoenix the situation is complicated by nearness to the Mexican border and the consequent Mexican colony among which are many tuberculous. They constitute about one-eighth of the tuberculous population. In Phoenix, tuberculous Negroes are more in evidence than in Colorado Springs, perhaps because in the former city a hospital has recently been established to which tuberculous Negroes are admitted.

Along with the increase in migration to Colorado Springs has gone a corresponding increase in the financial burden carried. In 1920 the amount spent for the tuberculous in Colorado Springs was approximately $32,000; in 1924 it was nearly $41,000. In Phoenix the estimated total expenditures for tuberculosis in 1920 was $51,000, most of which was in out-door relief administered by the County Supervisors. The amount spent in 1924 probably fell short of that by a few thousand dollars.

As before there was the same story of emergency help followed by the patient's passing from ken, over half the number in Colorado Springs being in this class and 63 per cent in Phoenix. They cost the community much financially and receive no lasting benefit. What of the future? All the publicity efforts have not succeeded. The migration of the tuberculous to the Southwest is increasing. Both the communities studied are trying to meet the needs of the indigent tuberculous to the limit of their abilities. Colorado Springs is second in rank in the country in the per capita amount raised by the federation of social agencies; Phoenix had a hard time this year to meet its budget for very necessary social work. Financially they are at their wit's end.

Colorado Springs is still advertising its climate and may expect a considerable increase in its tuberculous population. Are these cities going to be able to meet this increasing and continuing burden? If so, how? If not, what is to be done about it?

JESSAMINE S. WHITNEY.

Catching Tuberculosis Young

MASSACHUSETTS, determined to stop at its source the stream which eventually fills the tuberculosis sanatoria, is at work on a ten-year program which is one of the most ambitious efforts thus far exerted to eradicate tuberculosis by correcting the conditions which favor its development and discovering the actual disease in the earliest and most easily curable stages. In the course of those ten years, if the present program is carried through, half-million dollars will be spent and 200,000 children in the public schools will be examined and treated, when treatment is necessary.

The Massachusetts program, as Dr. H. D. Chadwick pointed out at the last Massachusetts conference of social work, is based on the following premises:

Tuberculous infection is almost universal.
About 70 per cent of the people develop enough immunity to prevent disease.
About 30 per cent have the disease in varying degree.
About 7 per cent die from tuberculosis.

There are three distinct types of the disease—general tuberculosis in infancy, glandular tuberculosis in children and pulmonary tuberculosis in adults. The staff at work in Massachusetts hopes to find the children with symptoms suspicious of the second of these, which is most easily arrested, and by proper care to prevent the development of the pulmonary form.

"We believe," said Dr. Chadwick, "that these cases, if neglected, will be found to furnish the bulk of the adult consumptives in ten or fifteen years. Nearly all of them can be cured while they are in the glandular stage."

So clinics, which eventually will cover all parts of the commonwealth, have been at work this year examining children in the elementary classes and junior high schools of five cities and forty-nine towns. Those who are 10 per cent or more underweight for their age and height; who are in contact with cases of tuberculosis; or who are in poor physical condition from unknown cause, are the candidates for these clinics. It is estimated that children such as these make up about 15 per cent of all school children in the state, or about 110,000 at any one time. During this first year about 9,000 children have been examined; 5 per cent of those whose histories have been analyzed at the present time have been found definitely tuberculous, while another 10 per cent are suspicious, or probably tuberculous.

The program includes sanatorium care for those who require it and family and community supervision of the borderline cases, with sanatorium care if they do not improve. The staff is acting, of course, in cooperation with family physicians, local boards of health, with their dispensary and nursing staffs; school departments, with their physicians, nurses, and nutritionists; and summer camps and preventoria supported by public and private agencies.

Dr. Chadwick predicts that the number of cases of malnutrition will be greatly reduced, while the susceptibility of these children to tuberculosis and other infectious diseases will be markedly lessened; the clinics will lead to the discovery of other physical defects and give an opportunity for their correction; because of a higher standard of health there will be a substantial decline in the number of children who have to repeat their grades; and finally, "mortality from tuberculosis in Massachusetts will decline

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rapidly because by this program cases of tuberculosis will be prevented from developing into bacilli spreaders and infection thereby lessened, and at the same time resistance in the whole group of school children will be so increased that when they reach adolescence and young adult life they will be much less apt to develop the pulmonary type of the disease."

Health in Preparatory Schools

UP to 1919, it was the custom at the Lawrenceville School, as at most of the preparatory schools, to have one or more trained nurses in residence and to depend for physicians' services on the village or town doctors.

During 1920 one of the trustees, Dr. Samuel McC. Hamill, a well known pediatrist of Philadelphia, recognizing that the medical supervision in preparatory schools of the country had shown little advancement in the past twenty years, and was far below the standard required by law in the public schools of many cities, brought before the board of trustees a revolutionary plan, which after much preliminary debate was put into effect in 1922. The full-time service of two doctors, a staff of nurses and a laboratory technician were engaged, and an addition to the infirmary and a doctor's office with waiting room, examining room and a well equipped modern laboratory, were built.

One of the doctors, a professor of medicine at the hospital of a great university, was appointed medical director, in charge of the department; the other was placed in charge of the sick. Though in general charge, the medical director's first business is in reality to look after the well—that is, to remove obstructions to health, to safeguard the school from contagious disease, to practice preventive medicine, to put flesh on the thin and to "thin" the fat, but above all to examine every boy and, what is much harder—strange to say—to see to it that the parents consent to necessary medical attention.

The first point of attack on the part of such a medical director should be those diseases which can be prevented before the boys come to school. Therefore, protection against smallpox by vaccination, and typhoid by inoculation, is now a definite requirement for admission to Lawrenceville. Another preventive measure is the requirement of frequent physical examinations. As soon as a boy comes to school he receives a cursory examination. Immediately thereafter, in association with the physical director and his staff, the doctors examine every boy in school. This examination is made in order to determine a boy's physical condition in regard to athletics, so that the doctors may decide whether or not a boy may safely engage in the more strenuous sports.

Later in the fall each new boy receives a complete overhauling, consisting of a detailed history, a careful physical examination and laboratory tests, including a thorough examination of the blood, urine and stools. In the winter term the old boys receive a similar examination. If it is found in these examinations that a boy needs medical attention, the medical director immediately informs the parent by letter. By such means diseased tonsils and the like are discovered and removed. It is surprising to find how many of these supposedly well boys are sent to us with some minor ailment of which neither they nor their parents are aware; and still further surprising to observe the almost miraculous benefits that have accrued to boys by the removal of an obstruction to their growth, both mental and physical, of which detriment to their health they had no knowledge.

Yet another preventive measure has been an insistence upon the more frequent use of the dispensary and infirmary. As the Lawrenceville medical director says in an article in the alumni bulletin:

> Many serious "major" conditions begin as "minor" ones; seen at an early stage it is often possible to keep them "minor." Prevention of the spread of several contagious diseases is possible only at the very beginning of the illness. For these reasons it is very important to have the boys consult the doctor early and on slight provocation. It requires cooperation on the part of the student body, but this has been in large measure secured. Two evidences of this may be cited: (1) the ratio of dispensary visits to infirmary admissions last year was ten to one (a very satisfactory result); this year the ratio is almost twenty to one. (2) Last year measles was introduced into the school from the outside three times; in almost every instance the boy affected was in bed, and under observation in the infirmary two to three days *before* the appearance of his rash and spread in the school did not occur; without cooperation this would not have been possible.

Although it is not exactly a preventive measure, yet one may place under this heading the attention given to boys whose weight is below the normal for their height and age. This deficiency has been made good by extra food in the form of milk between meals and after study hour in the evening. "The weekly gains," says the director, "registered by these boys on the "milk squad" have been steady, the total gains of the individual boys for the most part very satisfactory and in some instances astounding. When considered in terms of increased resistance to infection, decreased loss of time from illness, improvement in strength, endurance and scholastic standing, the results have more than justified the expenditure of the fund appropriated by the board of trustees."

The associate doctor has the care of the sick and the dispensary. In serious cases of course, he will call immediately on the medical director, who is responsible for the health and well-being of every boy in school. A staff of four nurses, with a head nurse in command, supplies the needs of the boys. In usual times, of course, this is rather a large staff for a school of 530 boys to carry. But we have found that it is not only safer, but more economical to keep a full staff of nurses in the hospital. The technician, who is also a graduate nurse, takes care of the laboratory examinations and also does the stenographic work of the doctor's office. Daily bulletins, based on the daily reports of the attending physician, are sent to the parents of every sick boy.

There is an old proverb that you can take a horse to the water but you cannot make him drink. There is one supreme necessity for the success of a medical scheme as that of Lawrenceville. Perfect as it is in theory, with the best doctors and nurses available, without cooperation on the part of the boys and on the part of their parents, the scheme would fail. Hence the supreme necessity of choosing a director who can command the respect and affection of the students. As far as Lawrenceville is concerned I may say that the cooperation of the boys and parents has surprised me because of its wholeheartedness. Moreover, the effect of the well-being, health and concentrating powers of the student by this sensible and serviceable oversight has surpassed the hopes of those who have endorsed this medical scheme.

MATHER A. ABBOTT

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Health and Happiness—in an Institution

THE proceedings of the Ninth National Conference of Catholic Charities state in the report of a committee, "The committee holds that the best place for the child is its own home, when that home is normal and happy, or can be made so by financial assistance or efficient family welfare work." While we know the home to be the natural place, and usually the best place after the first year, we maintain on the record of our experience at St. Ann's that *infants under one year of age receiving hospital type of care in an institution receive better medical supervision, better nursing care, better dietetic watchfulness, and better mental hygiene than infants in the homes of even the well-to-do.* An infant's life during the first year may be compared to that of a plant. All it needs to thrive is proper food, care and sunlight. The thing to be avoided during the period of most rapid growth is stimulation. The greatest trouble with its environment in most natural homes is excessive mental stimulation, which works to the infant's serious detriment.

In infants over one year of age, we agree that the institution cannot supply the best influence necessary for normal mental and social growth. We feel, however, that by the use of the nursery school, we have eliminated, and others can eliminate, many of the inhibitions which are due to ordinary institutional care. These may seem radical statements, but we believe them to be true.

From an infant mortality viewpoint, compare the infant mortality rate of the city of Cleveland in 1920, which was 86 per 1000, against ours of 16 per 1000. This showing contradicts a statement which has been copied and re-copied into standard text books on the diseases of children, so it goes for a fact—because no one has taken the trouble to deny it—that foundling institutions contribute to the high mortality of our country. Our figures, instead of increasing the rate, have contributed to its reduction.

To show the necessity for the hospital type of care for infants, we will make a comparison of statistics compiled ten years ago, in our own institution, and those of today under the system evolved on the basis of recommendations of the Cleveland Health and Hospital survey. In 1911, 325 infants and children were cared for. There were 78 deaths, of which more than half were due to nutritional disturbances. In 1922, 406 infants were cared for. There were seven deaths, two from prematurity, two from broncho-pneumonia, one from syphilitic meningitis, and two from meningitis following infected spina-bifida. Since 1920 we have had only one nutritional death in the institution, which was September 2, 1921. The child entered the institution with the disease which caused his death. Our records are open to inspection at all times to doubting Thomases.

Brockhurst Studios, Ltd.

Children are placed in St. Ann's through various child-caring agencies, such as the Children's Bureau, Humane Society, Catholic Charities, in addition to foundlings and to infants born in the institution. Upon entrance, the worker is interviewed by the Sister in charge of the Social Service Department, who records such social history as is necessary. She then gives the child a number, and all subsequent records, charts and formula are filed under this number.

The medical history, records of treatment, and charts are kept separate from the social history, and easily accessible to any one desiring information about the child. Upon the dismissal of the child, the agency caring for it receives a record of its progress, treatment, and food in the institution, and recommendations for future care and diet.

The physical care of infants and children must originate and be administered completely under the direction of a pediatrician, and must be a one-man service throughout, as it is the only way definite policy can be continuously administered. The medical policy, either as to care or diet, that is not minutely controlled by the pediatrician in charge, soon creeps and then leaps into gross error. High morbidity and mortality are the results. The only way this can be avoided is the eternal vigilance of the pediatrician, coupled with the eternal cooperation of those in charge of the care. Half measures, hopes, prayers and good intentions are useless, and an institution which relies on them for guidance will soon degenerate into a mere shelter from the weather.

On admission to St. Ann's all children have a physical examination made by the house physician. The findings are noted on the clinical record, with emphasis on abnormalities and defects. The child is then isolated for a period of two weeks, during which time a throat culture is taken, and in girls a vaginal smear, if clinical evidence indicates the necessity. Weight, length, head and chest circumference are recorded. At the expiration of two weeks children are removed from isolation only after inspection by house physician.

Daily rounds are made by the pediatrician in charge, who then gives all orders in written form. Wasserman blood tests of all are made at the age of three months or on entrance in older children. If the test is negative, but the child has clinical evidence of disease, the Wasserman is repeated after a provocative dose of mercury. If still negative and clinical evidence is present, the child receives one year's treatment with neo-salvarsan and mercury. All three and four plus Wasserman without clinic evidence of disease receive treatment for a year. If the Wasserman is negative after six months' interval without treatment, the treatment is discontinued; if positive, it is continued as before, for one year. Von Pirquet skin tests for tubercu-

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losis are made at three, nine and twelve months. Immunization with diphtheria, toxin-antitoxin injection is made at nine months of age, or on entrance for children who exceed that age on arrival. Vaccination against smallpox is done routinely when a child is two years of age; and repeated in two weeks if there is no reaction.

The type of nursing care in vogue in many institutions would defeat the best medical supervision and diatetic detail possible. *Institutional care of infants under one year must raise itself to the plane of hospital care,* if infant morbidity and mortality are to be reduced.

The temperature of all babies is taken and recorded twice daily. Infants under six months are weighed three times a week, while children over one year of age are weighed monthly. Monthly measurements are made of length and of the circumference of head and chest. The nurse at this time also notes development, in such items as holding the head erect, sitting erect, standing, walking, eruption of the teeth, closure of the fontanel, mental development and so on.

The matters of bathing, clothing, feeding procedure and the like are all specified in the greatest precision. A baby's position is changed frequently, and at least once during the day he is placed upon his abdomen to promote muscular development. Except at night his movements are not restricted with bed clothing. The neglect of such seemingly unimportant details often works to the harm of babies in an institution. A promiscuous handling of the children is forbidden, as it favors the transmission of disease and promotes bad mental hygiene. The child is allowed to sit up or to be carried in a vertical position only when it can do so alone. The ventilation of the wards is improved by the continuous use of electric fans summer and winter, following the newer ideas on ventilation taught by Leonard Hill.

THE division of our work where the nursing mother takes care of her own baby is supervised in the same manner as the division for the care of the artificially fed. The importance of breast feeding is impressed on the expectant mother and others, by the display of a poster—*"The mother's milk is the private property of the baby. Whoever deprives the baby of this, a right it possesses, is not only a thief but a scoundrel."*

At present St. Ann's has fifty babies under one year who receive artificial food. The staff for care consists of one Sister, four graduate nurses and two pupil nurses, and three maids. There are also fifty nursing infants and the staff for their care consists of one Sister and three graduate nurses. The cost of the infants' department including all items of overhead, salary and maintenance, averages 94 cents a child a day, or $28.32 a month.

The dietetic department is conducted in connection with the Nurses' Training School. A dietitian is in charge with one graduate nurse as assistance, and two pupils receiving instructions for a period of one month each.

The milk laboratory is a separate room with ice box adjoining. The formulas are filled for 24 hours and crated at the hour of feeding. The bottles are marked with the babies' numbers, thus eliminating the possibility of duplicating names. At the hour of feeding the milk is heated to the proper temperature and sent to the wards. We use Grade A Milk procured from a farm under our own supervision, subject to inspection by the City of Cleveland. A check is made on the milk twice a month. The average count is less than 25,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter. All milk used in feedings is boiled over an open flame from 3 to 5 minutes. No special type of food is used routinely. Each baby has an individual formula prescribed by the pediatrician in charge. About 800 bottles of special formulas are filled daily. This includes soup, orange juice, and so forth.

The food for children of one year and over is prepared in a special diet kitchen by the dietitian and a pupil nurse. Each child receives daily a quart of milk, cooked cereal, one vegetable other than potatoes, as spinach, carrots, or lettuce, fresh or dried fruit, and egg or meat, such as broiled bacon, minced roast beef, broiled lamb chops, etc., bread and butter and a simple dessert. The children are especially fond of spinach, which is served at least three times a week. Three meals a day are used, with an afternoon glass of milk or cocoa.

THE oldest children of St. Ann's, ranging in ages from about eighteen months to four years, are quartered on the first floor of the institution. There are twenty-eight in number, and are cared for by one Sister and a graduate teacher, assisted to some extent by the girls who do the work on the floor. Realizing the urgent need of some sort of definite training for these little ones, we established, in July, 1921, a modified nursery school. I say modified, because our school is very different in some respects from the numerous nursery schools that have sprung up during recent years in day nurseries and other centers all over the country. First—our children have no home background nor outside experience; their whole world is bounded by the wall that encloses our yards. Second—we have a much larger number of children, and a smaller number of workers than would be found in any establishment organized along the lines of the recognized nursery school.

This point of difference may be emphasized by the remark of the director of a well-known nursery school, who when she heard the size of our class, threw up her hands and exclaimed, "You can't hope to accomplish anything with that number of children." This would perhaps be the opinion of the great majority of teachers in this line, if they were confronted with the same problem. However, they would be ignoring the vital point that we have to care for the children, and we must try to do something for them. We cannot decrease the number in our charge, nor can we, under present conditions, increase our staff of workers. In this respect most child-caring institutions are no better circumstanced than we, and it would be not only foolish but cowardly to assume that because conditions are not ideal, nothing can be accomplished.

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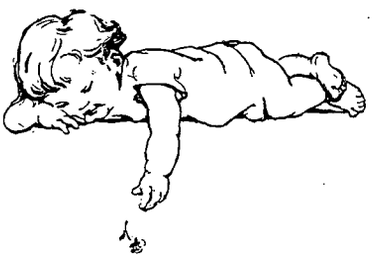
Institutional care for children of this age offers advantages as well as disadvantages. Conditions for physical development in an institution are usually better than those found in the average private home. The daily routine is such that correct habits of eating, sleeping and the like are easily established and firmly fixed. But it was the disadvantages under which our children were laboring in their mental growth that led to the establishment of the nursery school. Our runabouts were a lot of healthy little animals, physically robust, but mentaly woefully retarded. They were painfully shy, or uncontrollably forward, and in either condition incapable of normal, happy play. Moreover, it was not at all an uncommon thing for a child of three years to be unable to talk. That we have made some progress towards enabling these children to develop normally is evinced by the fact that at the present time all of our two-year-olds talk, and indeed, a few who have not yet reached their second birthdays are able to make themselves understood. They play freely and happily together, with no more friction than would be experienced by any group of children at play.

The routine of our day is briefly as follows. The children rise at seven, breakfast at eight, and are in the yard or the playroom shortly after nine. They play until eleven, when they wash, and have dinner at eleven-thirty. The nap period comes after dinner and lasts until about two-thirty. Upon rising they have a cup of milk or cocoa, and then spend the next hour and a half in the yard or playroom. Shortly after four they wash for supper, which is at five. The day ends at six o'clock, when they all go to bed. This schedule is absolute, and is never deviated from, for any reason whatever.

In order to facilitate the work as much as possible, the children are divided into two groups, the fourteen older ones occupying one table in the dining-room, and the younger ones being seated at the other. Most of the teacher's time is concentrated on the older group. They wash and dress themselves, and scrub their own teeth. At meals, after grace has been said, two of them pass the plates. They also clean the yard or put the playroom in order at the end of the day. The little children are washed, dressed and served by the girls who work on the floor. Their meals are supervised, however, by the Sister or teacher, and they use the same Delft service that the older children have. The youngest child handles cup and spoon with surprising ease. No tin or granite-ware dishes are used, and although the dining tables are marble topped, the breakage of cups and plates is negligible.

The children's yard is fortunately large, with a green lawn and abundant shade trees. It is equipped with swings, chutes, see-saws and sand box. There is also a good sized summer-house, which is a boon especially on rainy days. In warm weather all the playtime is spent in the yard. An adequate yard is absolutely necessary to the proper development of runabouts, and ought to be supplied even at the sacrifice of the beautiful grounds that surround some institutions.

In the severely cold weather, much of the day is passed in the playroom. It is bright and attractive, and equipped with all the toys and material usually found in the nursery school. It is, however, too small to be ideal. The children have free access to all the playthings except books and materials for pasting occupations, and readily learn to handle things carefully and with little breakage. Few of the toys or equipment have been paid for from our budget; most of them have come as Christmas gifts from various clubs or open-hearted individuals. Children's institutions in large cities are usually well remembered during the holidays, and by offering tactful suggestions, which are gladly received by most donors, it is possible to eliminate useless gifts, and acquire a collection of fine toys, which it would be impracticable to buy from the institutional purse.



While there is still much to be accomplished with this group of children, the following results have been definitely effected:

1. The children are seldom ill and are well developed physically.
2. They eat without question, and with fairly good table manners, any food that is placed in front of them.
3. They go to bed at nap times and at night as a matter of course, and sleep soundly.
4. They play freely and happily.
5. They are neither cowed nor unruly, and bear no institutional stamp.

We feel that any plan for the care of institutional infants and children that is less comprehensive than this is just as futile if good results are to be obtained as were the efforts of the children in Francis Thompson's comment on General Booth's In Darkest England, when he said, "Before me stretched an immense, soundless, bitter ocean. On its shore stood a string of benevolent children, equipped with sugar basins. What were they doing? They were throwing lumps of sugar into the waves to sweeten the sea."

J. R. THOMPSON, M.D.

The Matter of Orphanages

In Survey Graphic for June, R. R. Reeder, a veteran of orphanage administration, stated under the title Our Orphaned Asylums his conviction that "as a permanent home for the early years of dependent children, the orphan asylum should go out of business." Some comments on this article, and a word of reply from Mr. Reeder, follow.

From North Carolina

DR. REEDER is eternally right in saying that no institution, even the best, is as suitable as a good home for a child. It is easy to find such homes for babies. It is difficult to find homes for larger children. Wherever such homes can be found, or the mother aided by the state or private citizens, that is the ideal situation. However it may be elsewhere, in North Carolina the orphanages must care for most of these children or they will lack a chance to obtain nourishing food and a chance for education. It is for most of them either a home in an orphanage or conditions of dire poverty, often with the commonest necessities.

It is an injury to orphan children and tends to chill benefactions for such sweeping generalizations to be given wide currency. There are people who are so sincere in their belief that a home is the best place, that their extreme position would deny comfort and training to children who can find no one to mother them. There may be such institu-

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tions, as Dr. Reeder says, which prefer to prosper at the expense of the child. If so, they have no excuse for existence and should go out of business.

The true policy—the one practiced in this state—is to find good homes for all orphans, homes with foster-mothers, wherever such homes can be found, and to give institutional homes and training for all others. Up to this date, after homes are found for many, there remain hundreds of orphans who must go to orphanages or go hungry. Propaganda against orphanages managed like those in North Carolina is propaganda against the proper care of orphaned children. —*From an editorial in the June 28, 1925 News and Observer, Raleigh, N. C.*

From California

DR. REEDER'S article in the June Graphic was a notable one. Certain characteristics recall Miss Deardorff's Pied Piper piece. Each is thought-provoking, but unscientific and not wholly frank. Each is helped by a tricky caption admirably designed to prejudice readers against institutions before they have read the argument. The very pictures have been artfully chosen and arranged to cast odium on orphan asylums and their sponsors. These are outstanding specimens of a large number of similar writings which crowd the pages of social work "literature," and have done so for years.

For years now the anti-institution people have done most of the writing and all of the shouting. Yet note the air of injured innocence and conscious superiority in the following pathetic plaint. "For the first time in more than two centuries of their existence orphan asylums as a social asset in child welfare work have been brought under investigation and appraisement." Dr. Frankel submitted a less emotional and far saner report on the subject as long ago as 1902, to the second National Conference of Jewish Charities, because, as he says, of "the importance that has been attached in reecnt years, in particular by non-Jewish bodies, to the methods of caring for children through agencies, such as the boarding-out and placing-out systems." Why should one, in the year 1925, simulate surprise over the fact that less than 10 per cent of the children in institutions are full orphans? The Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society reported for 1901 that 37 full orphans, 406 half orphans and 479 children with both parents living, a total of 922 children, had been in their care. In the annual report of the Albany Orphan Asylum for 1912, Charles H. Johnson discusses why "the full orphan is a decreasing phenomenon in institutions," and reports 15 full orphans, 70 half orphans, 90 with both parents living and one unknown, for his full register of 176. He also gives an analysis of the causes of dependency in his group. Similar analysis and reports are numerous and well known. Obviously Dr. Reeder's question is purely rhetorical when he asks, "Why are there so many non-orphan children in these institutions?" His ready-made answer is inexcusable when he writes, "Chiefly because empty space in an orphan asylum is a brick-and-mortar appeal to move in." That statement is invidious or worse. It is unbelievable that he does not know that the true reason is because real need, and not the accident of the cause of need, has long been the criterion for admission. Full orphans are absorbed by collateral relatives or are eligible for adoption, so of course very few of them are admitted into institutions. Actively vicious example is worse than none at all, so of course many non-orphans will be in care as those bereaved by death.

One of the difficult tasks confronting an institution is keeping children out. This is especially true under the conditions obtaining in the many institutions which specially plan to conserve ties of kinship. Not the despicable "men and women who hold lightly their parental responsibilities to rid themselves of their God-ordained duty to their children" fill the institutions, but dragged and weary widows who cannot give proper attention to their children if they work, but who cannot support them if they stay at home; discouraged widowers who cannot get tolerable housekeepers; step-children where the new marital venture has been unsuccessful in whole or in part; families with two to seven children threatened with dispersal among two to seven foster homes; desponding parents of children who have been shifted two to five times a year from foster home to foster home; parents whose religious susceptibilities have been disregarded or hurt in the placement work; these are but a few among the many kinds of petitioners who besiege the institution managers for sympathy and relief. Says Dr. Reeder, however, "Once build an orphan asylum and it is there to do business. If necessary, it is liable to 'go out in the highways and hedges and compel children to come in'!"

It is not the purpose of this letter to combat or to depreciate foster home care of children. I am thoroughly convinced of its value, even though its limitations are also known to me from practical experience. Nor is it the purpose of this letter to defend institutions. They do not need it. They have been like the children of Israel in Egypt. (cf. Exodus 1:12.) Nor is it my purpose at this time to consider Dr. Reeder's whole paper or to argue the very questionable validity of his conclusions as applied to America but drawn from the data he makes available of experiences in Serbia and Poland. I merely wish to protest against the use of misrepresentations as arguments and against the recommendation of conclusions based on such misrepresentations and on half truths as reliable guides for social endeavor. The foster home is not a panacea for social ills and should not be advertised as the Soothing Syrup of Social Work. "Orphan asylum" is not a synonym for "the abomination of desolation." No one should try to build up a needless antagonism. Foster home and institution should not be treated as competitive methods, but as social resources adapted to different conditions. The institution of today is not the institution of twenty years ago. Even cottage plan institutions have changed. Institutions which were, in theory, designed to provide family life and training for boys and girls of all ages were, in practice, organized to serve primarily as training schools. Now while it is true that every good home trains its members to certain dexterities, this so-called "home training" is rightly only a by-product. Where these dexterities become the chief purpose, the house becomes a "school" or an "institution" instead of a "home." This is true whether the family numbers three or thirty. This is true also wherever the home is subordinated to an educational scheme. The fundamental difference between the new institution and the old is that the former is uncompromisingly a home-making project, whereas the latter is primarily an educational project. The latter ideal dies hard. It now tries to justify itself by claiming that only problem cases should be sent to institutions. Personally I believe this to be bad practice. But I

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am eager to make an open-minded study of comparative results in Baltimore, where the Jewish community *segregates* all types of problem cases—character, conduct, mental, nervous and health—in Levindale, with results in San Francisco, where they *isolate* problem cases in private homes, where they use widows' pensions, subsidized homes and foster homes before institutions, and then have made Homewood Terrace and the Protestant Orphanage Society each a group of large foster homes under the guidance of specially adapted and selected House Mothers, with the same relationship to schools and teaching that the ordinary home bears. It may take several years to get measurable results, but that is not a good reason for trying to force an immediate issue by throwing mud or by vilifying those whose opinions and methods differ from mine.

SAMUEL LANGER

Superintendent Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum
San Francisco, California

From Illinois

I HAVE read Our Orphaned Asylums with considerable interest, and while agreeing with most of what is said therein, and respecting the author's knowledge and experience, I feel that only one side of the story is told. The trend away from the drab orphan asylum to individual foster homes is an encouraging one, but there is no less encouraging progress toward the orphan home manned by people educated along social service lines, who study and serve the individual children rather than the mass.

The comment most often heard from visitors to the home of which it is my good fortune to be superintendent, is, "Why, I never imagined children in an orphans' home could be so happy," and the very initials of the institution's name have been interpreted by its members (not "inmates") to mean "It's My Own Home." If you could have been present at a recent reunion of former members you would have been convinced that these boys and girls and young men and women were really back home for a day.

I hope you are planning to publish an article soon from this point of view. There are enough people well qualified to write it so that you should have no difficulty in getting an interesting story.

FRED S. LYNN

Superintendent Illinois Masonic Orphans Home
La Grange, Illinois

From Mr. Reeder

MR. LANGER'S article is especially interesting in that it is one of but two unfavorable comments among the many I have seen upon the original article, and becaues it comes from one who is both a profound student of dependent child care work in this country, and also at the head of one of the "enlightened few" institutions referred to in the article.

Mr. Langer assumes a cleavage of child welfare workers into institution and anti-institution classes. If this is so, I should have to align myself with the institution group, having been an institution supervisor for twenty-five years. As stated in the original article I do not condemn institutions but deplore their failure to rise to the splendid service they might render. I am for the institution in its proper sphere and method of functioning, where a large and needed field is open to it, but not as a permanent home for the early years of childhood.

Mr. Langer's article fails to meet the real issue in that it appears to be written from the viewpoint of the exceptionally few institutions which are no doubt meeting the demands of the modern point of view of institutional service. These few should not be used as a mantle to cover the multitude of shortcomings in the vast majority of institutions which have not changed in the last twenty years and but very little in the last fifty years.

R. R. REEDER

WHILE THE EVILS of baby farms were being shouted once more from the front pages of the New York newspapers, Maryland quietly offered a bit of constructive evidence on the human economies of keeping young children at home. In 1916 the General Assembly of that state passed a law which forbade the separation of an infant of less than six months from his mother except under certain specified conditions. In application that law affected chiefly illegitimate children. So the Children's Bureau, to test its efficacy, prepared a study of the comparison of the death rates of illegitimate and legitimate babies in Baltimore in 1915, and again in 1921, after a five years' trial of the measure. While the death rate of legitimate children declined by 17 per cent during those six years, that of babies born out of wedlock was lessened by 53 per cent, and a number of maternity homes and baby boarding homes of dubious reputation have gone out of business. The report points out that this law, in meeting its primary aim of protecting the health of babies under six months of age, has established the principle of requiring legal sanction, such as commonly is required in all states for property transfers, whenever a baby less than six months old is turned over from the custody of his mother to any one else.

IN REQUIRING that sanction the Maryland law reckons with one of the most formidable obstacles to adequate supervision of illegitimate children found by Ida Parker in a follow-up study of 550 illigitimacy applications recently published by the Research Bureau of Social Case Work in Boston. In spite of cooperation between social agencies and of much excellent case work disclosed by the study, the great majority of illigitimacy cases quickly drifted through the records beyond the control, or even the knowledge, of the agencies involved. This disappearance was the more disquieting because of the high prevalence of ill-health among the mothers and high infant death rates, such as are almost universally found in such groups. But added to the inadequate equipment of most of the agencies for effective follow-up work, there was always the legal right of the mother to prevent supervision, and her ability to surrender or give her child away, or place him for adoption, and the fact that no agency in Massachusetts is legally responsible for such babies and has power to supervise their difficult course through childhood. This study recommends a more careful defining and dovetailing of functions between organizations to permit better follow-up, and further, that Massachusetts, like Minnesota, should "recognize its duty towards all its illegitimate children and should assume and exercise the right to supervise them over a period of years." Still wider in its application is the recommendation that Massachusetts consider the excellent examples which have been set by Minnesota, Oregon and North Dakota in requiring suitable investigation of all adoption petitions presented to the courts.

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EDUCATION

A Mountain New School

OUR program at Stanley McCormick School began four years ago with the taking over of an established secondary school of the standard type, located at Burnsville, in the mountains of western North Carolina. It had a fair plant and equipment for accommodating about 100 boarding and day students. The project was initiated by the country life department of the Presbyterian Board of National Missions under the direction of Warren H. Wilson. Mrs. Cyrus H. McCormick of Chicago provided the plant, erected new buildings and in large part undertook the support of the institution. Since her death two years ago the support has been continued by her daughter, Mrs. Emmons Blaine and her two sons, Cyrus and Harold McCormick.

The school was designed primarily to serve the peculiar interests of the mountain region. This section of the country was then, and still is, in a state of rapid, almost violent, transition from its old isolation to modern economic and social conditions. There was evident a distinct and urgent demand for young men and women to assume leadership in a new social order. This was the justification for the school. The authorities of the institution were given the utmost liberty, save for financial limitations, and told to get results.

They accordingly had but one question to answer, a question immediate and practical: How can these young people best be helped to understand modern life, get the most out of it, and render real service to their communities? The answer to this question, worked out frankly yet cautiously, has become the basis of our organization and educational program. We have found it necessary at times to make minor concessions both to local prejudices and to the established educational system; but on the whole our liberty has been real, we have had the hearty cooperation of the state officials and we have arrived, not at our destination, but assuredly somewhere along the road.

This is our present status: We are neither a standard high school nor a college but merely an institution devoted to giving young people, especially the young people of the southern mountains, a "liberal education" in the light of modern needs. We have a very modest plant and equipment and a faculty of fourteen persons chosen for their human sympathy and outlook as well as for their scholarship. We are small in numbers and have little ambition to grow in that direction; our plans look to an ultimate enrolment of not more than 250 students and twenty-five teachers.

WE have a definite course of training leading to graduation, not because we believe in graduation, but because American society today looks askance at a man without some sort of scholastic imprint. This course proceeds through four phases—a preliminary or preparatory training and a basic, a special and a correlating phase of a regular five year course.

The Preliminary Phase: The object of this phase of our work is to prepare students for the regular course. This is necessary because ordinary public school grading means little when it comes to grouping students for actual accomplishment. Boys and girls from the upper grades and early years of high school are rather freely admitted and bulked together in this department. By a series of intelligence and other standard tests, by observation, by individual and group instruction, by varied demands for the organization and expression of ideas, the morons and near morons are weeded out and the students with adequate natural equipment are stimulated to mental alertness, are taught how to study and express themselves, and are helped to acquire skill in reading and observation, a vocabulary, and a background of facts and experiences that will make more advanced study feasible and natural. Not until he has this equipment is a student allowed to enter the regular course. Thus he is spared the discouragement that comes from undertaking work for which he is not prepared and the group, unhandicapped by the drag of the weaklings, can move off at a live pace.

Regular Course, First Phase: three and a half years. This includes a five-fold program consisting of: (1) principal study, (2) supplementary study, (3) creative expression, (4) physical training, and (5) civic service.

Principal Study: This occupies three hours daily—the whole forenoon, except for a half hour of recreation. It introduces the student to one subject of life interest after another, beginning with the simpler and more immediate. The first nine weeks are given to questions of physical environment—air, water, soil, sunshine and the like; the next nine weks to social environment, the immediate community people, schools, churches, roads, amusements, products, markets and similar factors. After these the study centres around industry and business, living things, stages in human progress, physical laws and phenomena, human body and mind, current political and social problems, the Anglo-American heritage, in about the order named.

One group, limited to fifty students, begins each year and continues this study for three and a half years; thus there are four groups at work during the first semester of each year and three during the second semester. The familiar academic subjects are rudely handled, often torn apart and the usable fragments reassembled with other material to explain or illumine some immediate life interest. The instruction is in the hands of a committee of three teachers, one of whom has the scholarship and comprehension to interpret the particular field under study. The other teachers of the group work with the students, assisting them as to sources of information and methods of study and organization. The work is exacting and demands well-defined

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units of accomplishment. It is not stereoptyped, however, but gives ample opportunity for personal initiative and the satisfaction of individual interests.

Supplementary Study: one hour daily. The requirements of the course of principal study are sufficient to demand a full three hours work from the abler students in the group. The less capable students find it necessary to do work to complete the accomplishments. This hour of supplementary study enables them to meet their deficiencies. Those who do not need the time for this extra work can have instruction during this period in other fields, including mathematics and languages.

Creative Expression: one and one half hours daily. This may take the form of industrial arts, household arts, drawing and design, dramatic art, music or other work which serves to satisfy the creative impulse and develop skill in self-expression.

Physical Development and Recreation: Several hours each day are given to sports for the dual purpose of building sound and responsive bodies and gratifying the play spirit in some students and developing it in others. There is a program for all and a limited schedule of off-campus games.

Civic Service: Residence at Stanley McCormick School is not merely a preparation for life but a real experience in living. The government of the institution and the administration of its activities is in the hands of the students, subject only to a few fundamental limitations. Laws are passed in the House of Citizens and enforced through student officers and the discipline committee. Administrative committees of students with faculty advisors look after the lighting, heating and cleaning of the buildings and manage the dining hall. Similar committees direct the musical, dramatic, athletic and religious interests, the library, extension and publicity. Each student contributes to the institution one hour of manual labor each day. Thus the school is a community of young people cooperating to put over a program in which are involved interests and problems peculiarly their own. The ability of a student to function in this society, as a worker, social factor and leader, constitutes a definite and essential element in his progress toward graduation.

Second Phase—Special Courses: After completing the three and a half years of general training just described the student spends two semesters in pursuing courses of his own choice under specialists of the faculty. In these classes the teacher takes a small group of students, not over ten, and introduces them to his own intimate fields of study and to the methods and scope of productive scholarship.

Third Phase—Correlation and Expression: The prospective graduate spends his last semester in an attempt to shape up and understand the material he has been collecting throughout the previous years. He brings together the facts he has acquired, supplementing them where necessary, organizes them about points of special interest to him, and gives expression to the results in a variety of forms—outlines, essays, talks, oral examinations. The intelligence displayed in doing this is the basis upon which a diploma is granted.

THIS, very briefly, perhaps inadequately stated, is the way one instiution is attempting to meet the problem of humanizing and modernizing higher education. The peculiar needs which the school was established to meet forced it, very fortunately, to approach the problem from a social rather than a purely intellectual standpoint. These same circumstances laid upon it the necessity of providing in its scheme for (1) economy in time and money on the part of the student and (2) unusual effectiveness of training, (3) in the modern spirit.

By combining what is ordinarily classed as secondary and higher education into one course and going to the trouble of patching up the student's preparation until it provides an adequate equipment, two years time is saved the student. When the student enters the regular five year course of the school he has, in scholastic bulk, about one year's high school work. In five more years, making six in all beyond the elementary grades, he gets, we are convinced, the equivalent of eight years of ordinary high school and college work—much more if measured in terms of effectiveness in meeting life contacts. This saving enables him to begin professional or technical studies two years earlier than otherwise would be possible, and is so much clear gain if he goes into business, farming or other occupations for which the school itself prepares.

LEROY F. JACKSON

A School of Public Affairs

"THE only justification for the American public school system is education for citizenship." This is the declaration that opens a report of a special committee of the American Bar Association. Although the thoughtful reader may hesitate to subscribe to so sweeping a statement, he will surely be ready to admit that an outstanding purpose, if not the prime purpose, of the whole educational system is the teaching of and training for citizenship. If pressed further and asked whether in his judgment the schools and colleges and universities were successful in performing this function, he would probably be of the opinion that they are not. Having become aware of this situation in these post-war years, the educators have turned their attention to this problem so that it is now probably the outstanding problem of the pedagogical world. From the elementary school to the university experiment are under way that look toward the discovery of the best and most effective way of solving it.

The establishment of a School of Citizenship and Public Affairs in Syracuse University is therefore a symptom of a more or less widespread movement. This partially explains the general comment occasioned by announcements of the school among educators of various ranks and from various parts of the country. But in part the comment is doubtless due to the fact that the school is independently financed for this specific purpose and that it is to operate as a unit in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. It has its own staff and will concentrate on this aspect of the college curriculum and in cooperation with other departments will seek to integrate and cross-fertilize all of those fields of knowledge that have a contribution to make in the direction of citizenship training. By these means it is hoped that a type of training may ultimately be developed that will be just as clear-cut and to the point as training for a trade, art or profession.

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Good citizenship covers a very wide field. It involves being a good father or mother, a good neighbor and a good craftsman with all that the term implies. In addition it calls for continuous enlistment in the great peace-time army of the political comonwealth, where discipline is entirely voluntary and self-imposed.

Preparation for citizenship acording to this definition will obviously begin in the cradle; it will develop in the association and training of the home; it will grow through the influence of the school, the church, the printed word. Special subjects of study, such as literature, history, ethics, sociology and economics are clearly essential to its proper development.

But in view of the rapid extension of government in all important social and economic fields special attention is assigned to the study of government, its history, its purposes, its methods of functioning and control. For this reason, the central part of the program of the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs is devoted to the subject of government.

The curriculum covers an introductory course, required of freshmen, that will be discussed in some detail in a later paragraph. It includes such standard courses as those in national, state, and local government, political parties, European government, constitutional and international law, and foreign relations. Senior and graduate seminar courses are provided for the purpose of stimulating research, particularly with reference to the practical problems of government.

An important feature of the program is the emphasis to be laid on the psychological aspects of governmental control. The dominating influence of the human factor in politics has long been recognized. This applies particularly to public opinion, accepted as the most potent influence in our whole political life. Efforts are to be made by a staff member who has specialized in the field of social psychology to determine by scientific tests the principles and forces involved in the stimulation and development of public opinion. Extensive experiments are already under way.

Here also mention should be made of the plan to evaluate the factors and qualities requisite for leadership in political life. The basis for this investigation is to be an analysis of the personality and career of men and women who are generally recognized as leaders either in important administrative positions of a public character or in politics. It is hoped that investigations along these and similar lines will lead to a better understanding of human beings who form the very "stuff" of politics and government.

Finally a graduate course looking toward the Master of Science degree in the field of public administration is now being given. This is directed particularly toward training for city management and governmental research. It is the same work that has been given heretofore by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. It is being offered in cooperation with the members of the Bureau staff, as well as with members of the university medical, engineering and business schools. A more comprehensive course looking toward the same end will be launched next year. It will cover a five-year period and will lead to a Master of Science degree. This will involve a certain amount of intensive work in the Engineering and Business Administration Colleges.

Other specialized courses in public administration are being contemplated. Training in public health administration and courses preparing students for the consular service are among those that are receiving consideration.

An outstanding feature of the methods employed is insistence upon the concreteness of the materials with which citizenship deals. Its laboratory is obviously on all sides. Social, economic and political life teems with problems that are pressing themselves on the attention of the student. They are very human in their significance and very concrete in character. There is every reason why these should be approached according to the methods of the physical scientist, namely, open-minded observation, experiment, and measurement of phenomena.

To illustrate from the field of the political scientist, laboratory material in rich abundance may be derived from the governmental units in the environment. Routine administration of government, local, state and national conventions, platforms, public addresses, and documents, reports of legislative sessions, and current events influenced or occasioned by government afford ample opportunity for discussion, observation, and first-hand investigation. From such consideration underlying forces and principles may be recognized.

Generally speaking, the individual case or the individual phenomenon is to be the point of departure in elementary instruction or in the more advanced work. It is clear that this goal cannot be realized immediately because of the dearth of organized material, but the dominating objective in all courses is to be attention to the concrete. In this respect, we are seeking to keep pace with the method of teaching social science that is being adopted by a growing group of instructors.

The second item to be listed under the heading of method is the importance attached to the development of the attitude of critical inquiry. Training in independence of judgment calls for small classes. For this reason the large freshman and sophomore classes numbering about nine hundred students are being divided into discussion groups of some twenty-five to thirty students. They are under the charge of experienced instructors. The latter are all working toward the common end of making the classes real discussion groups, not quiz or recitation sections. So far as possible the discussion is being carried on from the floor, the teacher serving at once as moderator and stimulator. He is not interested in having the students accept his views or those of the author of the text-book on any given subject. He is rather ambitious to have them know why they have such opinions as they may have on the subject under discussion, and thus to free them from prejudice, traditional or inherited belief. In the process of justifying their opinions he will insist on sound arguments, based on the intelligent analysis of facts. Respect for and acceptance of the need of evidence is the very cornerstone of the method. As future citizens the students must be trained to demand evidence and in this they must have practice in discriminating between the true and the false.

This method will be pursued in the more advanced courses as well. The importance of knowledge of content is admitted. But it is believed that of equal importance is the cultivation of the habit of critical inquiry and of insistence on facts as the only sound method of arriving at satisfactory conclusions in the social and political sphere. (*Continued on page* 647)

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COMMUNITIES

Jewish Federations and Community Chests

THERE are fifty-two Jewish federations in the United States, spending, in the aggregate, about $10,000,000 a year. Practically all of these, with the exception of those in the larger cities, have joined community chests; and in certain instances where those in larger cities have not joined community chests, they have joined community welfare federations or councils of social agencies. Those in New York (including Brooklyn), Philadelphia, Baltimore, Chicago, St. Louis and Milwaukee, none of them in a chest, spend approximately $7,850,000. The bulk of the expenditures through federated activity, in other words, is still made independently by Jewish federations.

There is, however, an urge toward joinder in the community chest, although the wave of sentiment for it is tending to turn a bit toward ebb tide. Certain dominant reasons can be indicated for the slight recession of the wave.

In the first place, it must be understood that a great many of the Jewish federations in smaller cites and towns—and even in larger cities, such as Cincinnati, Detroit and Cleveland—joined in the community chest during the general wave toward cooperation induced by conditions during the war. Jewish federations joined then almost purely as a matter of public policy. There was much more discussion in the circles of Jewish philanthropic activity of the advisability of such action than may have appeared superficially, even in such well "chested" cities as the great triumvirate just named. In these cities particularly, the sentiment for it was induced by the fact that the Jewish organizations had certain contributions to make which, unhappily, they did not possess, and therefore did not make universally, in other cities. These contributions were an efficient lay personnel that was well liked and understood in the general community and could make a contribution in the councils of the chest; a budget that had been raised fairly efficiently, but which, in the case of two of these cities, has not proved adequate; and, in two of the cities, effective cooperation through the Jewish federations. Maurice Hexter, who has made a study of the experience of Jewish federations in community chests, brings forward these three elements as criteria for a decision by a Jewish federation as to joining a chest. Whether or not they can be considered the only elements concerned is quite beside the question. But it is true that in a great majority of cities, the Jewish federations could not make all of these contributions.

It may be said at the outset that there is almost universal agreement among the intelligent persons concerned with the direction of Jewish federations with respect to membership in a Welfare Federation or Council of Social Agencies which is concerned with progressive discussion of the philanthropic needs of the entire communty and gradual standardization of work, salaries, methods, and so forth.

When it comes to a financial federation, however, there is in the first place the question of public policy. While there is no dual national allegiance among the Jews in the United States, while there is no dual citizenship as such, there is an eternal "conflict," or rather an eternal necessity for reconciliation between what constitutes the Jew's primary duty toward the Jewish community and his primary duty toward the general community insofar as communal affairs are concerned. Inherent in this "conflict" is a long history of primary community organization in Europe and in the United States, of long experience in federated communal activity, which, at times, included religious activities in the federated activity. So that when the question of joinder comes before a Jewish community or the Jewish federated group, when it represents much of the community, this "conflict" inevitably arises; and, when the question is raised, as it is being raised, directly or otherwise, in the larger communities, the professional and lay leaders of the Jewish community instinctively turn toward the situation within their own groups.

There they see, at the present time, a growing number of important organizations that are being erected as institutions, or organized for propaganda or other purposes by the eastern European group. This group, now developing its own social and economic leaders and becoming stabilized economically, has the financial power to gratify an inherent desire for its own institutions. These institutions, in some communities, tend to equal in budget the needs of the established Jewish federation. This is beginning to be true, for example, in Cleveland, where there are such large institutions, and in cities like Detroit. Inevitably this leads to "conflict" not only in the gathering of funds, but also in standards of work, in attitude toward organized philanthropies and in the actual conduct of case work, administration of hospitals, and of child caring organizations. Within the Jewish community, there is thus a conflict in standards of work, in attitude toward philanthropy, a conflict which to the non-Jew, though he may meet it in his own work with other groups, tends to be academic until it begins to affect the community chest budget. It is theoretically true that the chest makes its campaign throughout the community; that it organizes its solicitation of funds on an absolutely non-sectarian basis. This, however, has not removed from the former and present Jewish communal leaders their feeling of responsibility for an adequate sum being collected from the Jewish community. This is so true that in certain cities Jewish communal leaders, subsequent to the chest campaign, have organized their own "quiet" campaign for the purpose of increasing Jewish contributions.

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The financial difficulty inherent in the Jewish community will take years to straighten out because it is a conflict of attitudes. Large groups in the Jewish communities feel it incumbent upon themselves to start their own institutions, which because of sub-standard work or for other reasons are not included in the community chest. They naturally tend, therefore, either to give a proportionately smaller contribution to the chest, or to contribute not at all. This lays a disproportionate burden financially on smaller groups in the Jewish community which used to support principally the Jewish federation.

In certain instances the chest feels that there is an insufficient contribution from the Jewish community; in other instances the Jewish community, knowing its constituent members much better than the general community does, feels that in some cases it gives too much and in some cases too little. The latter, it is generally felt, is particularly true of the great amount of new wealth that has come in the Jewish communities in the last ten years. This is but one problem.

In order to meet this problem, and to meet also the problem of reconciling the conflict of attitudes in Jewish communities, certain communities such as Detroit, San Francisco, and Los Angeles have organized, in addition to the community chest drive, a second drive for funds which is limited to the Jewish community. In its course an attempt is made to collect funds for non-chest organizations, particularly for those organizations that are becoming semi-community centers, but whose main purpose is to conduct institutions for the propagation of Jewish culture and the inculcation of Jewish education. Included in some of these drives are also some of the Jewish national organizations, particularly those that the local community may desire to support and to recognize. And this moving toward a second campaign subsequent to or preceding the community chest campaign, as local conditions dictate, is being advocated in a large number of communities yearly, and may become, outside of the three largest centers, namely, New York, Philadelphia and Chicago, where there is no chest in any case, a regular fixture. In other words, for the Jewish community, the chest appeal of one campaign for funds during the year is, in the light of experience, increasingly unfeasible.

THERE are certain other conflicts and "fears." For example, Jewish federations know that in the course of a number of community chest campaigns, sometimes as the result of Klan activity, as in Portland, Oregon, there has been propaganda to the effect that undue sums of money have been appropriated to Catholic and Jewish institutions. A circular to this effect was printed and distributed in Portland. It has been my experience to sit at a chest campaign luncheon in a large eastern city, notoriously non-Klan, and to hear the chairman of the campaign explain the fact that this propaganda was not true; that Jewish and Catholic institutions were doing a great deal of work, for non-Jews and non-Catholics, and this was particularly true of the hospitals maintained by these two great religious bodies. But what would constitute the correct proportion of "giving," and the correct proportion of "receiving" by a hundred per cent Jewish federation or a fifty per cent Jewish federation, or by the Jewish community, is a problem that the Jewish communities have not solved for themselves and the chest has not attempted to solve. The difficulty lies in the fact that the chest is going through the same experience that the Jewish federations have had for many years—briefly, that chests are organized financially on the basis of averaged pre-chest budgets; that neither chests nor Jewish federations were organized with reference to definite community plans; that, therefore, for a period of five years or so, the chest proceeds to demand an increasing budget of the general community, as did the Jewish federation of the Jewish community. Thereafter there comes a plateau period when the community chest does not grow. It is in this period generally that there has been difficulty among Jewish federations in meeting the financial demands of organizations. Chests in such a period begin to think in terms of standardization studies and differences in budgets. And this leads us to a second problem.

WHEN Jewish community leaders or Jewish organized groups have asked the Bureau of Jewish Social Research whether or not they should join a chest, after investigation of the circumstances and of the facts we have inevitably had to counsel such leaders, groups or organizations that they should wait; that they should develop high standards of work; that they should develop efficient personnel; that they should raise an adequate budget which would have reference not only to present needs but to future needs; that they should be sure of capital needs in the way of buildings and other funds before joining.

This advice we have deemed eminently practical in the light of actual experience which Jewish federations are having in chests. For example, Jewish relief societies, in both chest cities and others, tend almost universally to spend more per family in material relief than the non-Jewish societies. There are occasional exceptions, of course, but in the main this is true. This is so true that the Cleveland chest made a general study of comparative expenditures. Jewish relief societies, hospitals or child caring organizations, many of whom also sin in this respect, feel that for a period of years they have perhaps been raising the standard of giving to dependent families, in service and material help. They feel that the mere study of the situation leads inevitably to invidious comparison between their standards and those of other agencies, and they feel rightly that such standards of relief, the tendency toward which had been established before joining a chest, are sacrosanct to them and should not be disturbed. The chest, at least as a financial organization, cannot feel this way. Though certain leaders in the chests throughout the country tend to condone such situations, the situation is increasingly irritating at least to the Jewish organizations. It is also true in certain cities, particularly in the smaller cities, that the Jewish organizations are doing undifferentiated case work; that they are often in the hands of workers who are certainly less skilled and less trained than those in the general community. Inclusion in the chest in such cases must lead to irritating situations.

JEWISH federations, generally speaking, have been a little "previous" in joining community chests. They are therefore finding difficulty because of the gradual shifting of responsibility in the Jewish communities, because of the conflict in attitude within the Jewish community, because of the fact that to the Jewish community such matters as Jewish education and other semi-religious and cultural activ-

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ities are just as much communal problems as is the work of the hospital, the child caring organization or the family welfare group. These are not matters of academic discussion within the Jewish community, but part of the Jewish communal life.

Seeing the situation as it is, the large Jewish communities that are not in the chest view the situation with some trepidation. They do not know what can be expected of them financially; above all, they do not know what the community regards as a legitimate sum for the whole community to spend for Jewish work. These situations require study; they require on the part of the Jewish community freedom to work out its own salvation. This perhaps is the dominant consideration: the freedom of the Jewish group within the community to work out what is in its own opinion an adequate and substantial community program on a high standard basis. At the present time in a few of the large cities where Jewish federations and Catholic groups have not joined the chest, the situation remains fairly simple in that the urge of public policy is not as apparent or as strong as where both groups have already joined and there is apparent united community effort.

These are merely a few of the dominant problems that exist in the relationship between the community chest and the Jewish federation, whether the Jewish federation has or has not entered the chest. Some time these problems, and others necessarily overlooked in this brief article, should have concrete and detailed analysis. Jewish experience is at least always interesting.

SAMUEL A. GOLDSMITH

Books That Go to Jail

EDUCATORS, philanthropists, recreation experts, ministers and capitalists are much exercised over the use of leisure time. Few people have as much leisure time as the prisoner in the county jail. Prompted by the best of motives various organizations and individuals spasmodically interest themselves in the reading of these unfortunates, but rarely take into consideration their reading tastes from the individual standpoint. It had been customary for one public library I know of to supply them from time to time with withdrawn books and magazines, but this was always done with some twinges of conscience on the part of the librarian, for the library belonged to the public even when it was in jail, and this part of the public would probably never need its services more than now when they had long hours to while away with no occupation for mind or hand. Could not this time of imprisonment be used in a constructive way? What organization or individual was better equipped for this service than the public library?

So systematic jail service work was organized over a year ago in connection with the Ottumwa Public Library. Monday afternoon is Library Day at the jail. Selections from the Jail Log kept by the assistants in charge give an intimate glimpse of the work from week to week:

March 21. I had looked forward to my first day at the jail, but as the turnkey opened the big iron doors my heart sank with many misgivings. What would be the attitude of the prisoners? Would they misjudge my motive and resent my appearance, or would they realize in some way that there was a sincere desire to be of service? These thoughts fled as I walked in and a man said, "Oh, I know you." I really could not recall on what grounds our acquaintance was based, but the remark saved the day for me by opening a way of approach. The eagerness with which they accepted the books assured me that the librarian would be a welcome visitor.

March 29. There were definite requests today for material on automobile repair, marine engineering, the orchestra and mathematics. The men asking for books on these subjects expressed a desire to use their enforced idleness to some advantage.

April 7. The circulation so far shows a larger per cent of fiction is being read with Zane Grey and other authors of western books in the lead. It is best to permit these men and women to choose the books or subjects in which they are most interested, for sitting in uncomfortable cells reading a book they do not especially care for will be more to their dislike than a game of solitaire or rummy on the floor.

April 21. I believe that our jail library is bearing fruit, for one of the prisoners, after having been released, came to the desk of the main library, and, when he was assured that he could draw books, remarked that we would probably find him a "stidy" customer from now on.

May 7. I was detained for a few minutes today, so arrived at the jail a bit late to be greeted with the remarks, "You are late today," or, "We thought you had forgotten us." So eagerly do they look each week for the door to open and the books to be unpacked that even a few moments delay is noticed. I find my speaking acquaintances on the street are increasing.

May 26. Two gypsy girls in jail today. I asked them if they cared for books, the answer was five minutes in length, of which not a word could I understand. One of the prisoners said to leave some books and she would read to them; they seemed to understand and smiled their approval. More definite requests are being made for books on special subjects.

June 2. One of the "regulars" who is in for eighteen months asked for all dog stories next time. The woman who loved to look at pictures has gone. I was told that she considered the library a wonderful institution. Perhaps in no other way would she ever have come in contact with a public library.

June 9. The National Geographic Magazine proved popular today. Luckily, too, we had a baseball story for a man who would be satisfied with nothing else.

June 16. An old customer back! He took great pride in becoming a self-appointed assistant, helping others choose their books. His recommendations are relied upon, so the librarian does not count on the east side of the jail today. He also said he would take a few extra so the fellows who came in later would not bother him for his books.

June 23. One of the prisoners had a gift for the librarian, an intricate design which he had torn from paper, using only his fingers. He volunteered to make more and colored ones—if we would furnish him with the paper.

June 30. Another familiar face behind prison bars today! A little French boy, a patron of our children's department. His parents are good people, and we cannot but wonder how it happened, but our lips are sealed. The librarian does not try to cover the field of the social worker, but to minister through books, supplementing the work of the other.

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July 7. There was a request for a book on the Eighteenth amendment this afternoon. The man said, "You know when you get in jail, you kind-a wish you'd known more about the laws." I took the book Prohibition Inside Out, by Roy R. Haynes, to him, and not wishing to misrepresent, explained its character. At first he refused to take it, sullenly walked into his cell and remained there until I was packing the books to leave. As the last books were being placed in the bag and I was about ready to go, he came out again with a brighter look on his face and said he would be fair, he would take the book; it was only fair to read both sides. He not only kept it the allotted time, but had it renewed in order to pass it among the other prisoners. I felt that a book on law enforcement read by those who were breaking the law was filling its mission.

October 7. Cross-word puzzles are competing with books. Newspapers are carefully clipped, the puzzles mounted on heavy paper for distribution, and there is battle royal if there are not enough puzzles to go around.

The books receive excellent care; none have been marred or mutilated in any way, nor have any been lost. Another more appreciative group of readers cannot be found, and in the course of time hundreds of people who otherwise might never have come in touch with the Public Library have felt its helpful influence, so that the institution takes on a new meaning in their minds. It has been found that in many cases after the prisoners are released their thoughts and steps turn to the Public Library—it may be only for books of recreation, fiction to while away leisure hours, but in an encouraging number of cases it is for books to continue study begun in jail.

One evening a young man approached the loan desk and asked the assistant if she remembered where she had seen him before. Neither she nor anyone else, he assured her, would ever see him in a place like that again. He said that had he known books before as he had come to know them while imprisoned he would never have been there. He was a railroad man: while imprisoned he began to study for an examination which would qualify him for a higher position, and continued the study after his release. If he passes there is an opportunity for him in another city where he can begin all over again.

Books that go to jail work overtime.

MAY B. DITCH

Uncivil Civics III

The Board of Education

The Board of Education sits!
It's chiefly noted for insistence
In making people think that it's
Preparing children for existence:

It cannot be it has in mind
This life of us who haven't died yet!
Perhaps it is that future kind
We Common People haven't tried yet.

SEYMOUR BARNARD

SOUTH PARK, Chicago, knows what its clients want. V. K. Brown, the commissioner in charge of public playground work there, has circulated questionnaires among the youngsters who use the playground, and tabulated the results. Boys and girls at the age of 9, 12, 15, 18 and 20 were asked to express their preferences among a long list—covering most of a letter-size sheet—of sports, games and amusements. With the boys of nine, movies topped the list, swimming was preferred by the twelve-year-olds, football by the fifteen-year-olds, and the boys of eighteen and twenty were firmly wedded to baseball, with the movies ranking no better than third at any age above nine. With the girls, however, movies were second choice at nine, first choice at twelve, and second choice again at fifteen and twenty. Swimming most intrigued the nine-year-olds; volley-ball—a made-to-order game that just didn't appear in the consciousness of the boys who voted—most pleased most of the fifteen-year-old girls; and "social dancing" held sway in the eighteen and twenty year groups.

DO ALMANACS grow on the southside of the tree? For a couple of years the South End of Boston, thanks to the wit and initiative of A. J. Kennedy of South End House, has had its South End Almanac, and now South Omaha bursts modestly into print with a 44-page handbook of its own social resources. Here it is the South Omaha Social Settlement and the Sociology Department of the University of Omaha, under the direction of Professor Earl Sullenger, which are responsible.

WARREN COUNTY, Pennsylvania, has compiled a Welfare Directory of itself which lists all community organizations, county officers, teachers and school boards, fraternal orders, clubs, churches, industries, newspapers, banks, etc. Almost anything which one might want to know about any branch of common activity can be found here. The outsider seeking information as to health work done, or educational facilities, or organized recreation can learn here the proper people to interview, and be relieved of endless research and questioning. The inhabitant of Warren County must himself get a new and correlated view of his community.

ARMENIANS are eligible for American citizenship, under the recently announced ruling of the federal judge sitting in the United States Circuit Court of Portland, Oregon, in the case of Cartozian (see The Survey, Feb. 15, 1924, p. 505). The government had brought suit to revoke the citizenship granted the petitioner, a rug merchant of Portland, on the ground that Armenians were not "free white persons" under the meaning of the phrase as used in the laws relating to naturalization. The court understressed the finding of the Supreme Court in Takao Ozawa v. U. S. that the color test alone was insufficient as a means of demarcation between races eligible and ineligible for citizenship.

FOR the special benefit of teachers who are anxious to bring their classes into contact with the pressing problems of housing and community planning Shelby M. Harrison of the Russell Sage Foundation and Benjamin R. Andrews of Teachers College have prepared a brief selected bibliography of books and pamphlets on these subjects. It was published in the Teachers College Record for June 1925 and has been reprinted in pamphlet form in connection with an article by Professor Andrews on Housing and Education. The bibliography lists mainly American texts and points suggestively, by noting the date of their publication, to the comparative dearth of current books—save those manuals of house-building and house-financing which attempt an individual approach to the problem—in this field. The list does not include such an important new English book as Purdom's The Building of Satellite Towns.

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INDUSTRY

Labor Vacation and Summer Schooling

From the educator's side of the workers' education fence Mr. Kallen of the New School for Social Research and Professor Eubank of the University of Cincinnati contributed to this department in the July Midmonthly a discussion of trends and experience in that field where digging is as yet so tentative and the crop so various. Here two voices are raised from what is distinctly the labor side of the same fence

THE experiment in providing "vacation and education" for trade unionists, which was tried out on a small scale by Brookwood Labor College at Katonah last summer, was carried through on a larger scale this year. During the first three weeks in August a total of about one hundred men and women of the labor movement spent an average of a week each at Brookwood. They came from practically all the states east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio, as well as from Canada. There was a group of railroad men including locomotive firemen, boilermakers, sheet metal workers, stationary firemen and oilers, machinists, maintenance-of-way men, car-men, railway clerks and telegraphers. Other trades and unions represented were electrical workers, textile workers, motion picture operators, molders, painters, carpenters, lithographers, teachers, federal employes, cap makers, subway and tunnel constructors, machinists, miners and boiler makers.

Perhaps about 50 per cent of those in attendance were officials employed by their organizations. Among them were presidents and vice-presidents of international unions, presidents and secretaries of system federations of the shop craft unions on the railroads, presidents of central labor unions, business agents and organizers. The remainder were rank and file workers in industries, all of whom, however, are active and key people in their local organizations.

The daily program of the summer session provided for two periods of lecture and discussion in the morning, each lasting about an hour and a quarter, a lecture and discussion in the evening lasting about two hours, leaving afternoons free for recreation, reading and informal conferences. The first week in August was devoted to a Railroad Labor Institute, the attendance at which was confined almost exclusively to officers and members of the railroad labor unions. In the development of this institute, Brookwood had the cooperation of an advisory committee consisting of Spencer Miller, Jr., secretary of the Workers' Education Bureau of America, and representatives of a large number of trade-union organizations, including the Central Trades and Labor Council of New York and vicinity, the Women's Trade Union League, the Amalgamated Association of Lithographers, the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union, the International Furriers' Union, the Upholsterers' Union of North America, the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers, the Printing Pressmen's Union and the New York Council of the International Brotherhood of Painters, Paper Hangers and Decorators. The educational program of the Railroad Institute, as well as that of the General Labor Institute, was in charge of Arthur W. Calhoun of the Brookwood faculty.

The morning sessions of the Railroad Institute were devoted to a study of the history of railroading, organization, management and financing of railroads, government regulation, the history of railroad labor unions, the development of plans for union-management-cooperation, sources of possible wage increases and the means for tapping these sources. These discussions were led by Otto S. Beyer, Jr., consulting engineer of the Railway Employes' Department of the A. F. of L., and George Soule, economist, of the Labor Bureau, Inc. Bert M. Jewell, head of the Railway Employes' Department, outlined the history of labor organization on the railroads; Donald R. Richberg, attorney for the railroad labor unions in many critical cases, gave valuable suggestions as to effective methods of presenting labor's case in conferences with management and before boards of arbitration or conciliation; Whiting Williams described his experiences as a worker in various industries and advanced the contention that security of employment together with a sense of being engaged at some work of service to society were the main drives of the industrial worker; David J. Saposs, of the Brookwood staff, outlined the means by which in a developing industrial society labor seeks to control in various ways the basic economic functions of production, distribution and credit.

DURING the second and third weeks in August a General Labor Institute was in session to which members of all trades and organizations were admitted. During one week the morning sessions were devoted to a study of the sources from which wages may be obtained and the means by which labor may effectively tap those sources. It may be interesting to quote from the summary composed at the conclusion of the discussions on this subject:

As for the possibility of increasing the real income of labor there are obviously two lines of approach—the possibility of getting something away from other classes in society and the possibility of so increasing output that the income of the workers might be considerably increased. Hitherto labor in its demands has confined itself ordinarily to mere pressure on the employer but it is now coming to be seen that except in cases where it is worth while to drive the employer out of business labor needs to know and be able to show where the increase is to come from. Labor cannot expect greatly to improve its income by subtraction from rent, interest, profits or salaries. Even if a new social order were set up with the present level of productivity it would be found that the United States is the only important country that would be at all able to support its population on what we would consider a reasonably

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proper standard of living. It is not true that "enough is produced if only it were fairly distributed."

The large hope of labor lies in increase of production. How much progress can be made toward increased production under the present system with its inequalities of welfare and income and its universal sense of grievance remains to be seen; that is, the improvement of distribution and increase of production are closely related phases of a single problem. While they should not be blurred into a single simple problem they cannot be pulled apart into two independent problems. This is not intended to imply at all that labor can solve its problems without replacing the present economic system by one drawn on different lines. The emphasis on production is not to be considered as an appeal for loyalty to the boss or to the system. It is simply a recognition of a problem that would be central under any economic system that we can contemplate as far ahead as we can look.

The morning sessions during the second week of the institute were devoted to an analysis of the history of the war and post-war period from the labor standpoint. The problems discussed included the trend of real wages during the period, the trend of unionism, the significance of the great industrial struggles of the period, the attitude of the judiciary to labor disputes, the attitude of American labor toward international problems.

At the evening sessions of the institute lectures by labor men and educators provoked lively discussions on a number of important subjects. Robert Fechner of the general executive board of the International Association of Machinists described the history and activities of labor organization on the Cuban railroads. The organization of women workers, labor experiments with unemployment insurance and life insurance, meeting the menace of the company unions, the situation in China, the development of giant power and its significance for specific trade unions, as well as for the workers in general, were discussed by Theresa Wolfson, L. D. Wood, insurance expert attached to the A. F. of L. special committee on insurance, Ben M. Selekman of the Russell Sage Foundation, Nathaniel Peffer and Robert W. Bruère.

It may be noted that much of the material presented to and elaborated by the Brookwood institutes is to be made available in printed form for workers' educational enterprises and others interested in the work. The lectures of Otto S. Beyer are being collected in a book on Cooperative Railroading, shortly to be published by the Workers' Education Bureau of America. The addresses of Mr. Jewell and Mr. Richberg and the discussions on a number of other subjects will be made available by Brookwood either in a special edition of the Brookwood Review, which is the official organ of the college, or in pamphlet form.

BROOKWOOD'S two years of experimenting with workers' education summer schools suggests a number of at least tentative conclusions. It suggests for one thing that there are a considerable number of officers and rank and file members of the unions who are interested in that type of workers' education which emphasizes the study of those subjects which may be expected to contribute directly toward making them more efficient and intelligent officers and members of their unions; which in other words regards the primary aim of workers' education to be a practical one and which thinks of labor colleges and of the workers' education movement in general as an instrument being forged by the trade-union movement to enable it better to achieve its rights and to discharge its functions as an increasingly important social institution. So-called cultural subjects were certainly not absent from the program of the summer institutes but emphasis was placed on the study of labor problems pressing upon the unions for solution at the present time and this seemed to be entirely in line with the interest and desire of those who attended the institutes.

The Brookwood summer institutes have also given evidence that there is a very considerable group of trade-union officials seriously interested in the development of workers' education. Brookwood obtained unstinted and enthusiastic cooperation in the development of the Railroad Labor Institute from Bert M. Jewell, head of the Railway Employes' Department of the A. F. of L., from the executives of several of the railroad labor unions and the editors of a large number of the official railroad labor journals.

It is obvious that the amount of intensive study that can be done in one or two weeks during the hottest period of the summer by men and women who are engaged all the rest of the year either in manual occupations or in official trade-union activity is limited. It has become clear, however, that merely giving such men and women access for a few days to a library containing a large number of books in the social sciences and a collection of labor journals, official and otherwise, puts them in touch with sources of information of which they can make great use both in their reading during the rest of the year and in carrying on the practical work of their organizations. The man who has been immersed year after year in his trade-union activities frequently knows nothing of these resources and is as it were equipped with a new set of tools by this experience.

A number of instructors in economics and labor problems in the universities were invited to attend the summer session as guests. Among those who responded were such prominent figures as Professors Tugwell and Brissenden of Columbia, Perlman of Wisconsin, Schlichter of Cornell and Louis Levine, author of the recently published history of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. Both the trade unionists and the educators found their mutual contact exceedingly instructive and inspiring.

It has appeared also that the summer school provided the opportunity for bringing together the people who are doing the actual work of the workers' education movement in the various centers throughout the country. Instructors and organizers of labor educational enterprises in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, Washington, D. C., New York City, Baltimore, Salem, Mass., Sub-District 5 of the United Mine Workers in Illinois, the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, and representatives of the Workers' Education Bureau of America, were brought together by the Brookwood summer session. These people had known about each other's work in a general way through the periodicals or through correspondence. Many of them, however, had never personally met each other. No movement, particularly in its experimental stages, can expect to develop soundly and steadily unless those who are doing its experimenting have an opportunity to exchange experiences and to discuss their own problems. The summer school provides this opportunity for the workers' education movement as nothing else has so far appeared to do. Nor is this opportunity confined to the workers' in the movement from our own country. The British, German, French and the Japanese workers' education movement were represented at the Brookwood summer session.

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President Jewell of the Railway Employes' Department of the A. F. of L. in his address on the opening night of the Railroad Labor Institute suggested that the trade union movement passes through three stages. First it is fought by management. Then it is tolerated. Finally it is accepted as a helpful, necessary and constructive factor in industry. On another occasion the statement was made that a man's citizenship in the industry in which he makes his living is at least as important as his citizenship in the various political units to which he may belong but that while no one would expect intelligent citizenship in a nation unless its people were taught something of history and civics, few workers know anything about the history and civics of the industries in which they are citizens. The growth of the workers' education movement in general and of the workers' education summer school in particular may be taken as a concrete expression of the growing realization on the part of labor that it must broaden and deepen its knowledge of the problems of industry if it is to be a helpful, necessary and constructive factor in modern society.

A. J. MUSTE

Wings or a Microscope?

I WAS just finishing the article by Earle Edward Eubank on workers' classes in Cincinnati [The Survey, July 15, 1925] when the door-bell rang. Expecting no one I hastened to see the cause of this disturbance when the door opened and the head of Christ Steinkopf, a platt-Deutsch American, made its appearance.

"Come in, Christ," I said, genuinely glad to see him. "What kindly angel sent you up here at this very moment?"

"Oh, I was ambling by and seeing the light in your room thought I'd drop in."

"Well, you came in at the right moment. I was absorbed in a controversy on the 'higher learning' and I want you to help me out to get the straight of it. Sit down, Christ, and look this over." I handed Christ the July 15 number of The Survey and went out into the kitchen to see what I could do for my friend.

Christ was a great boy. He was a regular student in our labor classes and contrary to his appearance was keen, courageous and observant. He was built like a block of granite, a huge head set upon massive shoulders which topped a body that didn't deviate more than a few inches at any place from the lines of a perfect cube. Short of stature, with a large square body, solidly set on heavy short legs, he gave the impression of eternal immobility. But his mind was ever active. He was a baker by trade.

When Christ talked his words, heavily accented, rolled out like solid blocks of wood. Yet he was the only one who could get up at the Labor Council meetings during the never-failing discussions on the union label and tell the crowd that if it paid as much attention to organizing as it did to the union label it would be getting somewhere. Though this was heresy of the highest order he invariably got away with it.

Whenever I wanted a thorough, sensible worker's reaction to the many ideas propounded by intellectual labor neophytes I always called in my friend Christ Steinkopf.

I produced two cold bottles of amber-colored fluid and glasses, and set them down on the table. Christ was already absorbed in the printed page before him. I filled his glass and shoved the foaming brew close to his elbow.

"Drink one, Christ," I interrupted his reading. "It will help you forget the heat."

"Heat," Christ grumbled, as he downed the cold liquid in one continuous draught. He set the glass down and wiped the foam from his lips with evident satisfaction. "Heat," he repeated. "It's not the weather that makes me feel so blowsy as these here college professors who know so much what you and I want. I see that this here guy is all for Kultur as if we didn't have enough readers of the Saturday Evening Post already." Although Christ was long removed from Germany he still had the habit of pronouncing culture with a capital K.

"The trouble with these birds is that they want to high-hat the workers." Christ was looking at me now, tapping his index finger on the table for emphasis. "We play too rough to suit them so they want to fill us full of Kultur and then we'll be soft-spoken, have a 'thank you,' ready when the boss cuts our wages and if the wife is without shoes, tell her to read Shakespeare and forget about it. They want to give us a heaven we can run to when real life becomes unbearable. Ach, this Kultur business is just like your home-brew. It's so yeasty."

"Now you take this gink that the professor talks about," continued Christ, after having drained another glass. " 'We believe in education,' he says, 'of and for itself, not simply as a means to more bread and butter. If it is good for college people, it is good for the worker. We want it not primarily as an aid to a better job, but as a means of fuller living.' I think I know who that guy who said all this is. And I think he has already changed his mind. But evidently this idea just tickles the professor pink."

Christ bent over the table, trying to get closer to me and held up his right hand in a plea for complete understanding.

"When that man said he wants education for education's sake don't you see that he thought of education as a toy, to play with after his hard day's work was over? But you don't find college people looking at it in that way. They play golf for recreation. Sure education is good for college people. It keeps them from digging ditches or tending to a machine or driving a delivery truck for $18 a week. They use their education to fit them better for their jobs, their life's work. And labor education, to my way of thinking, should do the very same thing. Not that I mean by that that we should all be professors or lawyers, God forbid! I am a baker and don't want nothing more than to remain a baker, a good baker, maybe an educated baker, why not? But believe me I want to know how to make the bakery business better for myself and my fellow bakers. Maybe in that way we can give to other people and to ourselves the Kultur the workers want. And that is what labor education should do. I don't care to have it become an aid to a better job but I do want it to help me and my fellow workers make our jobs better, you understand."

Listening to Christ I wished that my audience were bigger. His interpretation of workers' education surely deserved a wider hearing.

"Maybe the professor hasn't read your article in Labor Age." Steinkopf was not through yet. "If so you ought to send him a copy. He still thinks that the purposes of our classes are for the develop- (*Continued on page* 645)

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Courtesy of E. Weyhe

Books in Our Alcove

Edited by Leon Whipple

"MEN today are listening but women are listening and reading." This statement was made at a recent public meeting where men and women interested in social problems were gathered. In the battle that followed it was declared that men are getting their information and inspiration in what one woman described as "sugar-coated tabloid chunks," by sitting at the feet of authors who are often also the doers in the economic world. The women, however, were reading and discussing the works of these authors. The men's clubs, adequately financed, meet at times and places very convenient for group thinking. Having lunched and perhaps stimulated mental reaction by the after-lunch cigar, they are ready to listen to a carefully prepared presentation of a current subject. But women, especially mothers and home-makers, have neither the financial strength nor appropriate time for noon-day meetings. They have become in slight degree inoculated with the secure-a-speaker-and-listen-habit. Their home duties and more meager club means prohibit such luxury save perhaps at the annual meeting. Hence, their program is local and of a reading nature, and this means going into hundreds of pages of thinking—of book reviewing and book presentation. The next question is of course: what shall we read that will get us in touch with world thought?

The extension divisions and libraries of the universities, state and local libraries, and editors all over the United States are being appealed to by women for reading lists and club programs which pertain to local and national social-economic questions. These requests have stimulated the book-producing and book-circulating organizations in an unprecedented manner. It has reacted upon the women's groups and created numerous small clubs in even the rural communities. Recently in an Iowa town of less than 5,000 population a count showed 33 reading clubs. These are not in any sense cliques, but come together in the federation of clubs, and in the Parent-Teachers Associations for exchange of ideas and the putting into action for the benefit of their own community of the new ideas assimilated through reading. A speaker not long ago pointed out the great contrast of this with a reading club of which she was a member twenty years ago. Her group spent an entire winter of weekly meetings painstakingly line by line doing mental diving for the hidden meanings behind the cryptic sentences of Owen Meredith's Lucille. She called attention to the present method by which that club would have disposed of Meredith's message in one meeting, and all would have gone home with a far clearer notion of it at that.

This wholesome appetite on the part of women readers has led to the formulation of what almost seems at first glance a too-encompassing and impossible layout for winter's work, but with their present methods of budgeting their time and their terrific energy it seems quite possible to cover such a program as the following suggested one, without interfering with the home duties.

WINTER'S PROGRAM ON SOCIAL-ECONOMIC TOPICS

Object: Broadening of sympathies.

September—Reorganization for winter work and social meeting.

October —Topic. Marriage and Divorce.

Books for ten-minute reviews previously assigned. The following are suited for such a meeting:

1. Child Marriages, Mary Richmond and Fred S. Hall.
2. Medical Certification for Marriage, Fred S. Hall.
3. Marriage, Wells.
4. Getting Married, Shaw.

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November—Topic. The Youth Question.

1. Youth in Conflict, Miriam Van Waters.
   A whole meeting should be given to this one book.

December—Topic. Religious Reviews.

1. Life of Christ, Giovanni Papini.
   Selections under this topic should be made with due regard to the religious inclinations of the group.

January—Topic. A New Outlook on Life.

1. The Research Magnificent, Wells.
2. The Servant in the House, Kennedy.
3. Man and Superman, Shaw.
4. Strife, Galsworthy.
   This month's topic permits of a varied selection depending upon the angle toward which the outlook is taken.

February—Topic. Labor.

1. The committee in charge for this month would do well to get in touch several months ahead with the National Committee on Child Labor and with the Department of Labor at Washington and have ready for exhibit and handling a number of the recent fine publications being issued through these organizations.

For special review:—

1. Seventy Years of Life and Labor.—Autobiography, by Samuel Gompers.
2. Poems on Child Labor, Compiled by National Committee.
3. Songs of Labor, Rosenfield.

March—Topic. Immigration.

1. Immigration, Edith Abbott.
2. The Making of An American, Riis.
3. From Alien to Citizen, Steiner.
4. The Immigrant's Day in Court, Claghorn.
5. Songs from the Ghetto, Rosenfield.
6. Little Aliens, Kelly.

April—Topic. The Negro.

1. The Negro and His Songs, Howard W. Odum and Guy B. Johnson.
2. Souls of Black Folk, Dubois.
3. Poems, Paul Lawrence Dunbar.
4. The Trend of the Races, George E. Haynes.

May—Topic. Rural Communities.

1. Papers and Proceedings of the American Country Life Association.

June—Topic. Mental Health.

1. When Life Loses its Zest, Abraham Myerson, M. D.
2. The Mind that Found Itself, Clifford Beers.

The above lists only suggest some of the volumes by which topics now under wide discussion have found their way into story and poetry and play. The list makes no claim to completeness. It is set down in the hope that it may be of some practical assistance to clubs where topics of the day are under discussion. The most that such book reviewing can do is to stimulate the readers and listeners to seek further.

EFFIE E. DOAN

Teaching Case Work

FAMILY WELFARE WORK IN A METROPOLITAN COMMUNITY, *by Sophonisba P. Breckenridge. University of Chicago Press. 938 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MISS BRECKINRIDGE has done an important service for training in social work by selecting and editing histories of the situations of need in forty-four families assisted by the United Charities and Federated Jewish Charities of Chicago. These histories bring together fruitful and varied teaching material. They are followed by a valuable appendix which gives statutes and reports to show the kind of limitations under which public welfare agencies fulfil their obligations.

The histories are printed with all of the relevant chronological detail to be found in the case records of well equipped "case-work" agencies. They have been selected, and grouped into eight sections, to facilitate the study of typical situations of social need. The situations thus exemplified are some of those accompanying sickness, insanity or feeblemindedness, non-residence, widowed, deserted, and unmarried motherhood, industrial injury, childhood and old age—the most constantly recurring situations that come to the attention of social "case-work agencies." The study of the cases by other and equally significant classifications is assisted by short descriptive phrases attached to each case history in the table of contents.

For instance case 15, under the section Non-residence reads The Family of Washington Johnson (a Migrant Negro Laborer), and case 43 under the section Childhood and Old Age reads The Family of Marcus Jackson (An able-bodied but unskilled Negro Worker . . . whose earnings are insufficient for the support of a wife and seven children). If one draws these two histories together for study according to the recurring situation of a Negro husband and father who does not support, it at once makes instructively conspicuous the dissimilarity displayed between them as to thoroughness of medical and social diagnosis. Again, cases 19 to 21, inclusive, under the section The Widow with Small Children may be compared with cases 32 and 33 under the section The Unmarried Mother and her Child (described as Unmarried Widows) on the ground of similar "biological" widowhood. Such a comparison would throw into relief their dissimilar socio-legal widowhood and the nature of its consequences. All the histories are given in sufficient detail to be thus combined to throw light on a wide variety of social problems and of organized social forces.

In other no less important ways this book furthers training for social service. By publishing together a succession of histories in which the family is dealt with as a unit, the author enables the teacher to stress and the pupil to grasp the fact that disability in any one individual in a family is inseparable from the welfare of his immediate relatives. And by indicating in her introduction, her foot-note comments and references, and her appendix that the various situations of need illustrated are recurrent and therefore a concern for social organizing, she offers opportunity for training in the interdependence of any one family with other families in neighborhood, city, and state.

An adequate grasp of the net-work of relations as between individual and society is not to be assumed in the social worker. Case work agencies necessarily make much of their painstaking concern for the special needs of each individual client and family. As a consequence of this individualized interest, such agencies easily become so absorbed in the fortunes of the one man, woman, or child who needs help as to overlook the recurrent factors in situations of distress which make those situations typical, and thus to miss relevant evidence of family and societal interdependences. Moreover, a laudable dread of mere routine in caring for individual need sometimes leads social workers to jump to the conclusion that by typical one means identical. Any two or more situations may be thought of as typical if they show a similarity in some important factor or factors. For instance, in the five cases of widowed motherhood cited above the

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situation of these women may be called typical in that each of them was left dependent by the death of her children's father. Resemblance in this important particular brings out only the more instructively the significance of their difference in married status. The heeding of recurrent factors is a bedrock of advance in the "art of helping people."

Another service of this book lies in its appendix. By means of the statutes and reports there printed the teacher can bring to the student an appreciation of the special conditions under which public officials do their work. It is of prime importance that social workers should get a sense for "actuality" in judging the shortcomings of publicly financed social activities. We need more analyses such as Miss Breckinridge is qualified to make of the difficulties under which social work gets done. Indeed, Miss Breckinridge's introduction and footnotes leave the reader eager for more of her own informed and thoughtful comment than appears in the later pages. We hope that a future book will satisfy this desire.

ADA ELIOT SHEFFIELD
Director Research Bureau on Case Work, Boston

Stories of Children Who Stumbled

THE PROBLEM CHILD IN SCHOOL, *by Mary B. Sayles. Publication Number 4. The Joint Committee on Preventing Delinquency. 287 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE American Psychiatric Association in its last annual meeting happened in one session to discuss the statistical aspect of the problem of mental disease, and in the very next session, some of the outstanding enterprises in prophylactic psychiatry. This emphasized in telling manner a conviction that has been gaining strength in all workers in this field that the hope of ameliorating the problems of psychiatry lies primarily in the direction of prevention. The extent of mental disorder as revealed by the latest statistical survey is truly appalling. The statement was recently made in a new publication on psychiatry that it has been reliably estimated that of the seven thousand infants born each day in the United States, about 270, or one in 26, eventually become incapacitated by abnormalities of the mind.

In view of a situation which justifies this type of prediction for the new-born infants, the present volume assumes particular significance. For the enterprise of the visiting teacher to which Miss Sayles calls attention in such illuminating and convincing manner by means of the twenty-six narratives from case records of visiting teachers, is one of the outstanding and perhaps one of the most promising enterprises in the prophylactic psychiatry of our day.

The peculiar charm and impressiveness of this little book lie in its direct and simple narratation of the careers of a number of children who, for one reason or another, stumbled in the path of their school adventure, and in the discussion in simple and clear language of the resources and techniques to which the various visiting teachers had recourse in their efforts to help these children over their difficulties. The author has very happily subdivided her material into the five general headings of Parental Attitudes, Feelings of Inferiority, Diverse Issues, Questions of Honesty and Sex Problems, although it will become clear to any one reading the book that usually various issues combine in the causation of the child's maladjustment.

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The reviewer is so favorably impressed with Miss Sayles' ability to transcribe in a telling and convincing fashion what is ordinarily rather difficult and complex material to handle, that he would like to suggest the possibility of having these case narratives republished in the daily press in a syndicated form in order that they may reach as many parents as possible.

For the more critical student of the problem of maladjustment, it is necessary to point out that final decision with respect to the reliability of the techniques employed here must be held in abeyance since in even the most successful cases what has been achieved must be looked upon as primarily the immediate adjustment of the child's difficulty. What this may mean as regards the child's future career only time will tell. This necessary reservation does not to my mind invalidate in the least the importance and usefulness of the work here recorded and of the splendid manner in which this procedure is being brought to the attention of the general public. It points unmistakably to one indispensable requirement in dealing with the problem child, namely, an approach free from bias and prejudice, coupled with a painstaking endeavor to discover and understand all the facts entering the situation. This is a tremendous advance upon the adult's traditional manner of dealing with the personality and behavior problems of the maladjusted child. BERNARD GLUECK, M.D.

Community and Civic Affairs

THE INFERIOR CRIMINAL COURTS OF NEW YORK CITY, *by Judge W. Bruce Cobb. The Macmillan Co., 529 pp...Price* $4.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS EXCELLENT BOOK though written for lawyers covers a much wider field than its name implies. The author has made exhaustive investigation of topics hinted at in the statute that will prove of great value not only to the practicing lawyer but to the many people in active social work who want to know of the intricate fabric of the inferior courts. Many fields of interest to social workers are covered with thoroughness. The book details the law and practice in the Children's Court, discusses the treatment of delinquent parents and wayward minors. The statutes on these and other subjects in the appendix are of especial value. The law and proceedings in the Family Court (pp. 228 ff.) should be an essential part of the learning of any social worker who comes in contact with family groups. Judge Cobb's review of how the inferior courts deal with the insane and mentally defective is instructive in light of recent progress in the field of mental behavior. The law dealing with the treatment of those suspected of venereal disease is set forth. Social workers and probation officers can profit from reading the recapitulation of the various city institutions for receiving persons convicted of crime, which shows just what types of convicted persons may be treated in each institution. The law with respect to marriage is treated with some fulness. This is the most complete work yet compiled for the guidance of lawyer and layman through the mazes of the inferior courts.

Legal Aid Society, New York. LOUIS FABRICANT

IMPRESSIONS OF AN AVERAGE JURYMAN, *by Robert Stewart Sutliffe. Appleton. 114 pp. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE IS the old range of stories retold: What and Why is a juror? The nature of an oath? Do witnesses ever see straight? Why is a lawyer? Was there ever a verdict that expressed the belief of a single juryman? Can oratory take the place of knowledge or intelligence? Can anyone prove that "justice" is better than "injustice"? How can twelve men all yelling at the top of their lungs reach any conclusion that can be regarded by a sane person as important? Every one should have a chance to serve on a jury: then the system would be either improved or abolished. J. K. H.

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THE SURVEY

112 East 19 Street New York City

The Most Amazing Strike

(*Continued from page* 608)

After a protracted debate, the House, on February 4, 1925, adopted a resolution providing for the printing of the report. This, in turn, was adopted by the Senate on February 5. It provided:

that the report of the United States Coal Commission relative to the anthracite and bituminous coal industry, with accompanying papers, charts, diagrams, and illustrations (including not to exceed one supplementary volume), be printed as a Senate document, with contents and index, and that 5,000 additional copies be printed, of which 1,100 copies shall be for the use of the Senate, 100 copies for the use of the Committee on Mines and Mining of the Senate, 3,500 copies for the use of the House, and 300 copies for the use of the House Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce.

As long ago as March 1925 the American Association for Labor Legislation announced in the American Labor Legislation Review its success in making good the failure of the Commission and the inertia of Congress and the governmental agencies at Washington. But in spite of congressional action the report did not appear. In the course of the correspondence between the Association and those who had the publication of the report in hand, a subordinate official wrote:

A great deal of the manuscript was in very bad condition. It not only required considerable editing but a good deal of work in rearrangement, in the preparation of adequate indices, footnotes, cross-references and tables of contents. The provision which the Commission has made for editing was entirely inadequate and funds were lacking to attack the job on a scale adequate to its difficulties. . . . I have canceled all other engagements and I am working nights and Sundays and have gone pretty deeply into my own personal pocket to pay for extra work that could not otherwise be financed.

By August 20, official information from Washington was to the effect that "the prospects for the appearance of the report in September are favorable." On August 25, six days before the anthracite strike was to go into effect, the Superintendent of Documents wrote that "the report of the United States Coal Commission has not yet come from the press."

If the anthracite strike drags on into cold weather, if first the price of anthracite goes up and then anthracite becomes entirely unavailable, there will inevitably arise great public clamor to have something done. But what shall be done? Three years ago the almost universal answer was that before anything could be done the facts must be made available for the guidance of Congress and the president and the enlightenment of the public. The United States Coal Commission gathered the facts and prepared its recommendations. In view of the use that has been made of those facts in the interval, is it likely that the public will again be satisfied with a commission of inquiry?

Does not this record reveal at least one of the causes for the apparent public lethargy over a strike which threatens to deprive it of a commodity upon which its comfort and health so intimately depend? Does it not in some measure at least account for the apparently contemptuous disregard of the public by the anthracite operators and miners? Three years after the creation of the United States Coal Commission its report is not yet published—in all probability never would be published except for the persistence of a single individual who had no official connection with the Commission.

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Kansas Proud but Puzzled

(*Continued from page* 614)

Commission. The compulsory settlement of labor disputes is no more; but the Women's Division continues, though shorn of most of its earlier authority.

Turning to the status of social work carried on by private agencies, the Red Cross activities as a whole were shown graphically to have fallen off since the war, but to have been strengthened during the past year in a number of individual communities. Boy Scouts reported eight first-class councils. They announced a plan to extend the jurisdiction of strong urban councils in order that the services of capable executives might be available to rural districts. Campfire Girls reported only two executives in the state. Two paid workers were reported for Girl Scouts. Three family welfare societies were reported to be members of the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, with three others listed in the association's directory. One child-caring agency was found to belong to the Child Welfare League of America, with one more eager to be admitted. Hutchinson had decided to carry on and expand the visiting teacher work begun with the assistance of the Commonwealth Fund. The Council of Statewide Agencies itself had held a two-day institute on child welfare at the State Teachers' College at Pittsburg.

Public health work seemed, in the minds of those reporting, not to have recovered its losses of 1923 and 1924, but to have reverted almost to the days of pre-governmental activity. For example, though the supposed function of the Tuberculosis Association is to demonstrate rather than to do health work, it actually carries on more health work than any other agency in the state. An effort has been made for four years to secure health units for Kansas counties; these to consist of a full-time health officer, a public health nurse and a secretary. The cost of $7500 per year was to be covered for the most part by funds from the state and from the Rockefeller Foundation, leaving the county to raise only $2500 per year. Seven counties have had such units, but the 1925 legislature cut off the entire state appropriation for such purposes. Hence their future development is problematical, to say the least.

All in all, the situation in Kansas today is very puzzling, and those who are in the midst of it are perhaps least able to see it in a fair perspective. There are so many cross currents and mutually contradictory elements that one cannot be quite sure what he will encounter next. Thus the Ku Klux Klan, like bootlegging and cigarettes, is legally dead, but actually very much alive. Fundamentalist clergy and their followers are very numerous in the state; yet, so far as the writer is aware, no Kansas legislator has even introduced an anti-evolution bill. Perhaps, since the statewide situation is so hazy, the sensible thing is to concentrate on local situations that are rather clearly defined; for there are communities in Kansas which have formulated definite tasks, in the carrying out of which they are seeking counsel. The challenge which Kansas offers to social workers just now is not to reform the state, but to attack specific problems in individual towns and counties where help is definitely requested. For we Kansans are a proud people; we are "90 per cent Anglo-Saxon" and we are "100 per cent American."

WHILE getting a working knowledge of such existing social movements as charity organization societies; social settlements; hospitals and dispensaries; children's institutions; organizations for the prevention of disease, for housing reform, for labor legislation, for the improvement of the administration of the criminal law, for prison reform and for social insurance — the student has an opportunity to observe as they are illustrated in a great world metropolis, problems which have given rise to these movements.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

FOR the first time in Illinois history "social service" is recognized in legislative enactment. Like all political units where social service has grown up piecemeal to carry out the provisions of social legislation, Chicago (Cook County) recently found itself with a variety of uncoordinated aspects of social service. As a result President Cermak of the Board of Commissioners of Cook County introduced into the legislature the County Bureau of Public Welfare bill, which became law on July 13, 1925, under title of "An act to create, establish and maintain in counties having a population of 500,000 inhabitants or more, a bureau of public welfare, in aid of the powers and duties of such counties, and the powers, functions and authority of courts of record in such counties relative and pertaining to social service functions of said counties and said courts."

Immediately on the passage of the bill the board endorsed a resolution appointing a committee of thirty-three members including executives in social work, representatives of Northwestern University and the University of Chicago, and women's clubs, as well as the members of the board, to study and report on a plan of organization for the county bureau on or before December 1. Wilfred S. Reynolds is chairman of the general committee, and subcommittees have been appointed and are engaged upon analysis of the statutes involved, of executive administration of proposed departments, of standards and scope of service and activities, of personnel together with job analysis and specification of positions, study of records, statistics and reports, of finance, appropriations, budgeting, purchasing and accounting, and study and comparison of private social agencies and public welfare bureaus elsewhere.

WITH THE AUGUST issue of the Nation's Health Dr. C.-E. A. Winslow, professor of Public Health at the Yale School of Medicine, retired as editor to be succeeded by Dr. Frank L. Rector, former secretary of the Conference Board of Physicians in Industry and medical investigator for the National Industrial Conference Board. Dr. Rector will have his headquarters in Chicago, to which the editorial offices of the magazine have been moved to facilitate publication. Dr. Winslow will act as a member of the consultant editorial board, and Susa P. Moore becomes managing editor.

ARTHUR DUNHAM, organizer and former director of the Philadelphia Social Service Exchange, has become secretary of the child welfare division of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, succeeding Paul L. Benjamin. Stanley Bright, of Reading, succeeds J. Prentice Murphy as chairman of the division. Mr. Dunham leaves behind him a brilliant piece of service as secretary of The Newton Central Council, which has been helping, with initiative and vigor, to coordinate social work in The Newtons, Massachusetts.

LEON HENDERSON has been appointed Associate Director of the Department of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation. Mr. Henderson was until recently Deputy Secretary of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Director of Accounts and Secretary of the Retirement Board.

HASTINGS H. HART has been elected one of the six vice-presidents of the International Prison Congress which met recently in London, one each to represent Great Britain, France, Belgium, Italy, Germany and the United States. About fifty Americans attended the conference, eleven of them as delegates of the government.

THE SYRACUSE Community Chest has announced the appointment of Augusta Mary Joy as a member of its staff to direct the social service work of the four hospitals of the chest—General Hospital, Good Shepherd Hospital, St. Joseph's Hospital, and the Syracuse Memorial Hospital. The new position was established at the suggestion of Dr. A. B. Dension, director of the Lakeside Hospital of Cleveland, who recently made a survey of the hospital situation in Syracuse. Miss Joy's duties will include the investigation of all patients who apply for free care, with follow-up during the convalescent period after discharge from the hospital. Before going to Syracuse Miss Joy was Red Cross liaison representative for the U. S. Veterans' Bureau.

A FINANCIAL as well as a literary expert is Anna B. Beattie (see Novels for Social Workers, The Survey, June 15 and August 15, 1925). Announcement has just been made that she is one of the joint winners of the Charles Eisenman Award, carrying with it a prize of $500, for the most practical suggestion whereby the Cleveland Community Fund may enlist and hold the interest and support of the city. Outside of her literary activities Miss Beattie is publicity secretary of the Associated Charities. Her collaborator, William E. Telzrow, is the financial secretary of the Citizens' League, and a former assistant to the director of the Welfare Federation. Their plan resolves itself into an educational program stressing the establishment of an educational department of the fund, comprising newspaper publicity, a speakers' bureau, and organization of volunteer service, with the development of the interest of large givers, the establishment of a Junior Community Fund to educate school children as future donors, and the effort of the Community Fund to arouse more active interest among its member agencies in problems of finance and publicity.

THREE NEW community chests are planning fall campaigns: Pawtucket, R. I., San Antonio, and Baltimore, where Alan Johnstone, Jr., has recently been elected executive secretary. Approximately thirty organizations have agreed to cooperate in the Baltimore fund for 1926, and the amount of $1,000,000 probably will be raised. Catholic and Jewish organizations are not participating this year. Harry P. Wareheim, director of the Rochester Community Fund, has been engaged to organize and direct the third drive in Newark, N. J., set for November, with a goal of $1,000,000. Studies of the feasibility of social work federation in community chests are under way in Providence, R. I., and Washington, D. C.

PRIORITY to the gentleman from Philadelphia! Upon reading the announcement of the coming semi-centennial of the "oldest functioning family welfare society," in Buffalo, 1927 (The Survey, August 15, p. 536), Benjamin Glassberg rises to inform us that the Jewish Welfare Society of Philadelphia came into being in 1869 under the name of the United Hebrew Charities and has been going ever since, and that that United Hebrew Charities in turn was formed by the amalgamation of six existing societies engaged in some form of family welfare, one of which was established in 1822 and another in 1838. Are there still older surviving inhabitants?

GERTRUDE HODGMAN, who has been educational secretary of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing has resigned to become Assistant Professor of Nursing at the Yale School with the start of the new academic year. Other recent appointments in the field of nursing include: Emily Elliott, formerly director of the public health nursing course in the Richmond, Va., school of social work, as executive secretary of the Dutchess County Public Health Nursing Association, Poughkeepsie; Naomi Deutsch, as director of the V. N. A. of San Francisco; Mary Chayer, as supervisor of the Des Moines School of Nursing; Stella Tylski, as director of the health center of Whittier House, at Jersey City, and Zoe McCaleb, for the past four years clinic organization nurse of the Bureau of Tuberculosis, Ohio State Department of Health, as acting chief of the Division of Nursing of the Department, following the resignation of V. Lota Lorimer.

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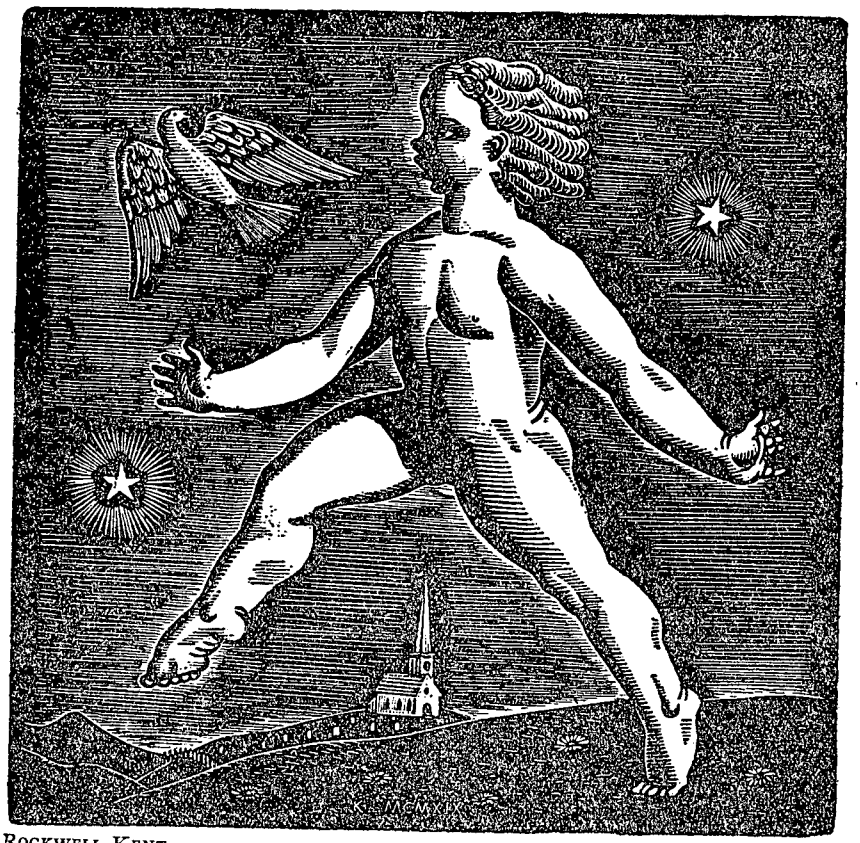

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by AGNES DE LIMA

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COMMUNICATIONS

An Open Letter to Robert W. Bruère

MY DEAR BRUÈRE: Your kindly warning (see The Great Obsession, Survey Graphic, August, 1925) shows me that there are possibilities of misunderstanding in my Harper article. Since you wish me to define my attitude, to show that I am not an apostle of the forces of reaction, you shall have your way. There is nothing in all you say with which I am not essentially in agreement, even in those places where you become most critical.

I should like you to remember in the first place, however, that in writing The Great Stupidity I did not wish to make unwarranted assertions with respect to things American. I am a visitor here for a short term of years; I have been treated with the most extraordinary courtesy and hospitality; facilities for investigation and the extension of my knowledge have been freely offered to me by employers and trade-unions alike. It has seemed to me that it would ill become me to make wide assertions with respect to a situation which I have observed in one small corner of one great city. I have had no wish to add myself to that growing list of visiting wiseacres who give gratuitous advice, based on their mismanagement of their own affairs, to America.

I had hoped it would also be clear that I was not intending, or offering, any sort of general solution of the so-called Capital-Labor difficulty. I believe that all the solutions offered so far have been too general; that the time has come for us to sit down and investigate closely particular situations with all the powers science has added to our equipment. This is in fact the method for which I stand, in so far as I stand for anything novel in method. If one takes account of the facts elicited by anthropological inquiry, by psycho-pathology, by clinical physiology in any industrial problem, difficulties of management tend to clear themselves away before the wider understanding thus achieved. My points—one and two—with respect to the "open shop" were not intended as a recommendation of the open shop. Taking it merely as a fact which had come under my observation, I was concerned to show that an open shop movement which serves to cloak bitterness and enmity, cannot do anything but extend and intensify the social disaster. This at least one can say from knowledge of what has happened elsewhere, without pretending to any special knowledge of things American. And in saying this I was considering the lesser problem of employers' association, rather than the wider problem of industrial organization.

With regard to this wider problem, any one acquainted with it has to admit at once the historic necessity and justification of trade-unionism. In England of the early nineteenth century it was customary to drive little children to work in the mines by making deductions of what they would have earned from their father's already small wages. Once in the mines they were worked for twelve hours a day, harnessed to trucks, half-naked, crawling on their hands and knees. J. L. and Barbara Hammond have made abundantly clear the atrocious neglect and oppression in which trade unions as agencies of working class defense originated.

These children were the grandparents of the present generation of workers; it is not surprising that the European worker is "class conscious" and suspicious of the intentions of his employer. In Europe and in Australia (and perhaps in America, too,) trade unions, very much on the defensive, will be an integral part of industrial organization for many years to come—until the traditional memory of this blot upon our history is wiped out. So long as we are content to attempt to work out our salvation by partisan feuds and factions, so long will obsession and irrationality tend to clog and hamper allegedly economic discussions. And for this period, I have no doubt, the organization of workers in trade unions will be needed to ensure them against the possible concentration of power in the hands of embittered reaction.

In Europe and in Australia, the existence of trade unions is nowadays assumed as a matter of course. The first thing that a visitor to this country notices is that here it is not so. And the second thing he notices is that the class-conscious worker, of the European variety, is very rarely encountered in the factory. To such a visitor, these are very remarkable facts; they mean that in this country there is an opportunity, —phrase it as you will—of anticipating the advent of "the great obsession." When I say this I do not mean that every right is to be conceded to employers' associations and that the unions are to be ruled out of court. In our present social condition there must be free organization amongst the workers —the Australian figures I quoted in Harper show that any blind opposition to this only makes "unionism" stronger. What I do mean is that this country seems to have an opportunity of intelligently anticipating that dichotomy between employer and employed which vexes and has vexed Europe. Where unionism in Europe, however necessary, is often a source of instability and uncertainty, it might be made here a continuing means to stability and security. There are many instances of precisely this in the United States; you quote in your article an instance of how this may come to be.

It was with something of this in mind that I wrote the title The Great Stupidity above my Harper article. It was addressed primarily to the present rulers of society. Brooks Adams' contention that the revolutions of history have been due mainly to the stupidity of a ruling class echoes in everything I wrote. Obsession in those who are ruled matters little and is soon superseded by reason if those who rule are not obsessed. Machiavelli's sage observations upon Florentine history and the education of princes make an admirable contribution to the study of industrial organization. It does not matter whether one is considering industry under a Russian or an American regime. There must always be skilled executives set more or less in authority over working groups: this is not a political question; it is a necessity of efficient operation. From what one hears, the Soviet is facing industrial problems of human organization entirely similar to those of England and America. And these problems cannot be solved by power or force or partisan factions, but only by improved understanding. And in this instance I do not mean an improved mutual understanding between groups, though that is important too. I mean an improved understanding of what is actually wrong, for in any such difference of opinion there is always something wrong; and, as a general rule, neither the employer nor his employes have the least idea what the problem really is. This I hope to illustrate on a future occasion.

There is something then beyond all these questions of group organization and mutual forbearance and understanding. This something is human ignorance and the historical tendence to self-justification and obsession in a ruling class or clique. Only so far as scientific investigation is encouraged—anthropology, pschopathology and clinical physiology as well as economics—is the problem of Macchiavelli's Prince likely to be solved. My article was intended to convey my impression

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that the United States seems to excel other countries in this respect—that it will be well if what is now a tendency becomes an explicit aim.

But I realize that my impression must be subject to correction by those who know the American situation better than I do, better than I ever shall know it. And I welcome any correction that will save my comments from being extensively misunderstood.

ELTON MAYO

Wharton School of Finance and Commerce,
Philadelphia.

Cemetery into Playground

TO THE EDITOR: I noticed in the July 15 issue on page 445 reference to a district in New York's East Side which has no playgrounds, but two cemeteries, one of which has not been used for a generation.

I was in England last summer and saw a playground in Kings Lynn, Norfolk, and learned that this playground, of about three acres, was originally a cemetery. All the tombstones had been moved to one corner of the playground, and set in rows sufficiently close so that all the tombstones did not occupy more than 5 per cent of the original cemetery space. I was told that no one living was particularly interested in the cemetery as such, and the local authorities finally took action as stated. I have been wondering if such action would be practical with the one cemetery which has not been used for a generation.

A. R. KAUFMAN

Kitchener, Ont.

Wings or a Microscope?

(*Continued from page* 635)

ment of a Queen Victoria or Kaiser Kultur but I know many labor people here who would bow their heads in shame if they thought the enterprise they are connected with had no other meaning. They know what 'fuller living' the worker can hope to achieve with his wife and five kids in a three-room flat, rear. Or maybe the bayonnetted and bullet-riddled miners in the West Virginia jungles can appreciate this 'fuller living' stuff. Kultur, like charity, should begin at home, and that's on the job."

My friend Christ Steinkopf leaned back and looked through the window, evidently having unburdened himself of all that was on his chest. He quaffed another glass of home-brew to liquidate his ruffled feelings.

"But Christ," I interposed, now that I had the opportunity. "After all the professor is just as sincere in his efforts in bettering the workers' lot as you or I are. While you may not agree with his ideas you will have to admit that he is making a real sacrifice in giving of his time to bring education to the workers."

"I know that," Christ replied, somewhat irritated. "I know he is sincere and perhaps what I have said looks as if I doubted it. But I did not mean it that way. What I am sore about is that he wants to create what the psychologists call an escape complex for the workers and in that way he is helping unconsciously to keep them forever satisfied with their lot. He wants to give me a nice white pair of wings but what I want is a microscope and a monkey-wrench."

The conversation turned to other matters. Having finished the last bottle of home-brew between us, Christ rose to go.

"So long," he shouted from the other side of the door. "See you again soon."

P. S.: At the last meeting of the joint education committee, at which Professor Eubank was not present, it was decided that all subjects taught in the labor classes should relate themselves as closely as possible to the workers' jobs. Cutural subjects are to be considered after the matters in which the students are interested as wage workers shall have been taken care of.

ISRAEL MUFSON

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JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 43 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est. 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Chelsea 8774). Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in co-operation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Amos L. Prescott, Treas.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical diector; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, delinquency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric social service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $.50 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Wm. J. Norton, president, Detroit, Michigan; W. H. Parker, Secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-second annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Denver, Colorado, June 10th to 17th, 1925 Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement —samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—347 Madison Avenue, New York City (Telephone, Vanderbilt 1200). Composed of 344 business and professional men, representing 1,540 Associations in 48 states, Hawaii, and the Canal Zone, and 388 Associations in 32 Foreign Lands. Officers: F. W. Ramsey, Cleveland, O., President; Adrian Lyon, Chairman of the General Board; John R. Mott, New York, General Secretary.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN.—2109 Broadway, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.
Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Miss Florina Lasker, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.
Department of Farm and Rural Work—Mrs. Leo H. Herz, chairman, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Livingston Farrand, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and programs for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $3.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

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THE SURVEY'S DIRECTORY

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of industrial legislation. Information given.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION LEAGUE—To secure representation for all. C. G. Hoag, sec'y, 1417 Locust St., Philadelphia. Membership, $2.00, entitles to quarterly P. R. Review.

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A School of Citizenship

(*Continued from page* 628)

Where Is It Heading?

The purposes of the course, so far as the great body of the students who take courses in the School are concerned, is to train them not alone for intelligent and active participation in public and social affairs as individual citizens, but also—and this is equally important—to inspire and equip men and women for the more responsible and arduous task of becoming leaders in their several communities.

The college and universities have long justified their appeals for public support on the ground that they are training for leadership in citizenship. But judging by the number of college-bred people who are active leaders in public affairs in our typical American community it would appear that the college has generally failed in this accepted function.

The staff of the school recognizes the challenge and consciously accepts it with all of its implications. In fact, it has been suggested that after a decade a test be devised, if possible, to determine to what extent its graduates who have gone out into practical life are active in the affairs of the city, state and nation, not merely as individual citizens but as active leaders too. If a goodly portion of them do not qualify in the latter capacity, the work of the school may be charged with a deficit in one of the most important, if not the most important, function.

With this end in view, students are to be equipped with information as to political, economic and social institutions and forces but they are also to be given such a "feel" on the one hand for the past of this country and the purposes and ideals that inspired its founders and, on the other, for their responsibility for leadership in the further realization of these ideals, that they will go forth ready and eager to take up the burden of doing their share toward making a genuine commonwealth of our democracy. If the *noblesse oblige* of earlier days has any parallel in our modern times, it must be in the obligation for leadership in public affairs that is born of the privilege enjoyed by the college student.

There can be no more suitable return on the generous national investment in colleges and universities than this, that they make an annual contribution of potential leaders qualified thus:

Equipped with a broad understanding of social forces and governmental practices and standards;
Trained to consult and evaluate facts before reaching decisions;
Tolerant of the opinions of those differing from them;
Endowed with the power of constructive imagination;
Inspired by a vision of the commonwealth-to-be; and above all else,
Ready to sacrifice self-interest to the service of the public.

To produce a group of such men and women year after year is a mandate to the colleges. Through the generosity of a public-spirited alumnus of Syracuse University who has given much thought both to the need of leadership in a democracy and to the possibilities of college training, the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs has been founded for the express purpose of accepting this mandate.

WILLIAM E. MOSHER

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CASEWORK SUPERVISOR for hospital social service department. Must be university graduate with casework experience. Send detailed application to 5278 SURVEY.

DISTRICT SECRETARY. Family-caring agency. Training and experience required. Social Welfare League, 512 Cutler Building, Rochester, New York.

RESIDENT WORKER to take charge of Play School group in Settlement nursery in New York. Special training and good personal background essential. 5262 SURVEY.

GIRLS CLUB WORKER and Assistant to Headworker in large Settlement House. Non-resident. 5275 SURVEY.

BOY'S CLUB WORKER, afternoon and evenings, in large Neighborhood House. Non-resident. 5274 SURVEY.

WANTED: Man field worker, Juvenile Protective Association, 25 East Ninth St., Cincinnati, Ohio. Give age, education, experience, references.

WANTED: An experienced Girls' Club Director to develop and supervise the activities for girls and young women in a Philadelphia Settlement. 5288 SURVEY.

INDUSTRIAL SECRETARY for Columbus, Ohio, Y. W. C. A. Experience with girls in industry, and sympathy with Association's purpose required. Apply General Secretary.

WANTED: A competent woman of high standards as matron in boys' cottage of Connecticut children's home. Address 5291 SURVEY.

RESIDENCE is offered in large New York Settlement with part time employment, for cultured woman with knowledge of hand work, beginning October first. 5284 SURVEY.

GIRLS' WORKER for Settlement house in New York City. State experience. Address 5294 SURVEY.

WANTED: Young man for social and religious work with boys and young men. Address City Mission, New Bedford, Mass.

TEACHERS WANTED

TEACHERS Wanted for colleges and universities. American College Bureau, Chicago Temple, Chicago; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

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WANTED for a Jewish Day Nursery resident social worker for family and neighborhood work; colloge graduate preferred; knowledge of Yiddish and experience in case work essential; in reply state age, education, experience, references. 5287 SURVEY.

WANTED: Private Secretary and Assistant with some experience in social surveys or statistics; stenography. Apply by detailed letter only to Director, Y. M. C. A., Survey, 2 West 45th St., New York City.

CASE WORK SUPERVISOR, woman under forty, County Welfare Organization in Florida administering public relief. Must have experience. Good salary. Real opportunity. Vacancy in near future. Address B. T. Hacker, Lynbrook, N. Y.

TRAINED NURSE AND SOCIAL WORKER for executive position in Worker's Clinic. 5302 SURVEY.

SITUATIONS WANTED

EXPERIENCED SOCIAL WORKER, formerly Assistant Superintendent of Hebrew Orphan Home for two years, desires position in Social field. References. 5300 SURVEY.

JEWESS: College graduate; teacher; Child Welfare and Social Worker available for position October 1, 1925. 5286 SURVEY.

BOYS' WORKER and Graduate Physicotherapist, desires position after October 1st, Boys' Club or Institution. Four years experience. 5298 SURVEY.

COUPLE, institutional people with modern ideas; woman teacher of domestic science, matron; man practical printer and instructor of same, with certificate, also musician: vocal coach, director and instructor of band and orchestra, teaching all instruments. At presnet employed but for good reason desire change. Best credentials from former employers. Address 5289 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED EXECUTIVE desires position supervising community house or institution. 5244 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT with experience in Boys' Industrial School and Orphanage desires position as Superintendent of such institution. Wife experienced matron. 5293 SURVEY.

INSTITUTIONAL SUPERINTENDENT open for position September 1. Has had experience Superintendent for Delinquents, both juvenile and adults. Also probation and case work. References. Answer SURVEY 5292.

COLLEGE GRADUATE, (Jewish) 28, of culture and refinement, experienced in Sunday School work and possessing versatile ability, desires position of a social nature. Highest references. Address 5295 SURVEY.

YOUNG MAN, Jewish, with many years of executive experience in child care work, desires directorship of Orphanage, Boys' Correctional School or Settlement. Finest of credentials. Available after September 15. 5279 Survey.

SUPERINTENDENT open for engagement about November first, wishes position in home for delinquent or dependent children. Satisfactory references. 5261 SURVEY.

HOSPITAL Social Service, Institutional, Settlement and Family Case Workers; Club Leaders and Trained Nurses, available for first class positions. Executive Service Corporation, Pershing Square Building, New York City.

SUPERINTENDENT with extensive experience in institutional work desires position as Superintendent of Orphanage or Industrial School for boys. Rural community preferred. 5238 SURVEY.

WOMAN of education and wide experience desires work involving community organization where there is some outlook for the future. Successful experience in industrial fields and in county health program. 5280 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED GIRLS' WORKER desires executive position to supervise and organize girls clubs, entertainments, plays, dances, parties and other activities. 5296 SURVEY.

AMERICAN TEACHER, experience in scouting, executive and other boys' work at home, and abroad. Master's degree. Best references. 5290 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE, woman, desires appointment as director of Jewish Community Center, fifteen years experience in welfare activities. 5283 SURVEY.

UNIVERSITY graduate student, twenty-eight, two years Settlement experience, desires afternoon position as boys' worker. 5281 SURVEY.

WOMAN, linguist, trained, experienced social worker, desires connection with hospital, social agency, child study or other organization. 5285 SURVEY.

POSITION WANTED by young woman, who desires to travel, as children's governess, or companion. Speaks English, Polish, Jewish, and some German. Would prefer family going to California. 5299 SURVEY.

POSITION wanted as Supervising Housekeeper in School or private family. Experienced in buying and planning. Must be in New York. 5301 SURVEY.

YOUNG LADY, experienced social and educational work, wants position along these lines, in New York City. Knowledge stenography, typing. 5303 SUVVEY.

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WEST VIRGINIA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Clarksburg. September 24-26. Secretary, Mrs. C. R. Madden, Beckley Hospital, Beckley.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION: Lansing, Michigan. September 28—October 1. Secretary, Mr. T. J. Werle, 209 West Shiawassee St., Lansing.

NATIONAL SAFETY CONGRESS: Cleveland, O. September 28—October 2. Managing director, W. H. Cameron, 168 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

MICHIGAN STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Grand Rapids, Mich. September 30—October 2. Secretary, Robert Lansdale, 107 Economics Bldg., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

INDIANA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Fort Wayne. October 1-3. Secretary, Elizabeth P. Pitman, Indiana Christian Hospital, Indianapolis.

INDIANA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Vincennes. October 3-6. Secretary, John A. Brown, State House, Indianapolis.

MINNESOTA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: St. Paul. October 5-9. Secretary, Dora Cornelisen, Old State Capitol, St. Paul.

NATIONAL RECREATION CONGRESS: Asheville, N. C. October 5-10. Secretary, H. S. Braucher, Playground and Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH: New Orleans, La. October 6-24. Secretary of Social Service Commission, Dean Charles N. Lathrop, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

KANSAS STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Topeka. October 8-10. Secretary, Caroline E. Barkemeyer, 306 Locust St., Halstead.

MASSACHUSETTS STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Pittsfield. October 9-10. Secretary, Jessie E. Catton, New England Hospital for Women and Children, Dimock St., Boston 19.

AMERICAN DIETETIC ASSOCIATION: Chicago, Ill. October 12-15. Address Mrs. Walter R. Fischer, 8400 Burley Ave., Chicago.

AMERICAN RED CROSS CONVENTION: St. Louis. October 12-15. Director, Public Information, Douglas Griesemer, The American Red Cross, National Headquarters, Washington, D. C.

ILLINOIS STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Springfield, Ill. October 13-15. Secretary, May Kennedy, 6400 Irving Park Boulevard, Chicago.

OHIO WELFARE CONFERENCE: Springfield. October 13-16. Secretary, Howard R. Knight, 277 E. Long St., Columbus, O.

MASSACHUSETTS STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Swampscott. October 14-16. Secretary, Richard K. Conant, 37 State House, Boston, Mass.

ARKANSAS STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Eldorado. October 15-17. Secretary, Blanche Tomaszewska, 1004 West 24th St., Pine Bluff.

ILLINOIS STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Champaign. October 18-20. Secretary, Mary Polmeteer, 538 S. Sheridan Road, Waukegan.

TENNESSEE STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Nashville. October 19-20. Secretary, Dixie Sample, 245 South Watkins Street, Memphis.

WISCONSIN STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Eau Claire. October 19-21. Secretary, Mrs. C. D. Partridge, 527 Layton Ave., Cudahy.

AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: St. Louis. October 19-22. Secretary, Homer N. Calver, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City.

PENNSYLVANIA DIRECTORS OF THE POOR: Lancaster. October 20-22. Secretary, Edwin D. Solenberger, 311 S. Juniper St., Philadelphia.

IOWA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Iowa City. October 20-23. Secretary, Miss Louise Cottrell, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CONGREGATIONAL CHURCHES: Washington, D. C. October 20-28. Secretary, Dr. Charles E. Burton, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

WISCONSIN STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Stevens Point. October 25-28. Secretary, Aubrey Williams, University Extension Bldg., Madison, Wis.

THE CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, INC.: New York City. Oct. 26-28. Director, Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, 54 West 74th St., New York City.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Williamsport. October 26-29. Secretary, Gertrude Heatley, South Side Hospital, Pittsburgh.

NEW YORK STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Albany. October 27-29. Secretary, Ella F. Sinsebox, 443 Linwood Avenue, Buffalo.

MISSISSIPPI STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Gulfport. October 28-29. Secretary, Mrs. James A. Cameron, 511 Bay Street, Hattiesburg.

MISSOURI STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: St. Joseph. October 28-30. Secretary, Esther M. Cousley, 5120 Delmar Boulevard, St. Louis.

OKLAHOMA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Tulsa. October 28-30. Secretary, Mrs. Virginia Tolbert Fowler, 622 East 12th Street, Oklahoma City.

THE CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, INC.: (Ten-Day Institute), New York City. October 29-November 7. Directer, Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, 54 West 74th Street, New York City.

MONTANA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Butte. Latter part of October. Secretary, Francis L. Range, 111 N. Montana Ave., Butte.

AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION: Jackson, Miss. November 7-14. Secretary, E. R. Cass, Prison Association of New York, 135 E. 15th St., New York City.

THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC DIVISION, AMERICAN NURSES ASSOCIATION: Washington, D. C. December 3-4. President, Mrs. Anne L. Hansen, 181 Franklin St., Buffalo, N. Y.

NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE CHARITIES AND CORRECTION: New York City. December 8-11. Secretary, Richard W. Wallace, Drawer 17, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION: New York City. December 29-31. Secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 E. 23rd St., New York City.

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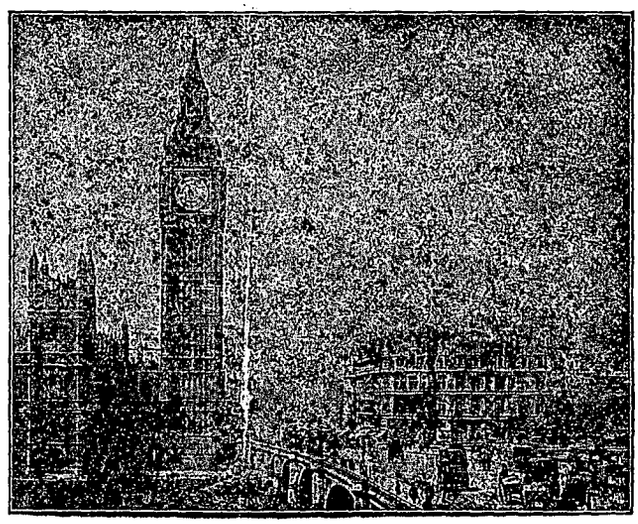

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